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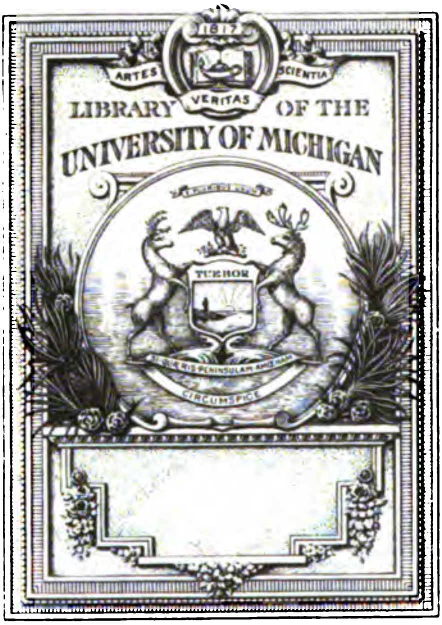
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INDUSTRIAL RECORD.

Self-dependence and Self-improvement—
The first right, and the first duty of every nation.
JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.

VOL. II.

FOR ALPHABETICAL INDEX, SEE END OF VOL.

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HISTORICAL SKETCH
OF
THE COMMERCE OF HOLLAND.

HAVING given in our last number an historical sketch of the commerce of France, we propose now to inquire into the rise, progress, and decline of the trade of Holland.

On no part of the subject relating to the early commerce and wealth of the several European nations, whose commercial importance marked their intercourse during the four centuries, from the 14th to the 18th, has there been more general misconception than with regard to Holland.

An idea appears to have prevailed that the wealth of Holland was *entirely* owing to the employment of its commercial marine, or, in other words, the carrying trade, and that she had little or no internal industry. It is our purpose to inquire how far this is founded in fact, and we think the truth will appear to be, that Holland was among the first to devote herself to manufactures—more particularly to those of which wool constituted the raw material—and this, long before England and France seriously embarked in them. We have already shown, in our article on general commerce, in our August number, that England obtained her knowledge of making woollen cloth from Holland, and that as late as the time of James I., between 1603 and 1625, all woollen cloths were made *white* in England, and sent to Holland to be dyed; so that Holland was vastly ahead of England, as late as the commencement of the seventeenth century, in the art of cloth making, though she had, for more than two centuries previous, imported her wool from thence. But we shall not let this rest upon any testimony short of that of Holland herself, which we shall soon give in a public document emanating from her William IV.

38063

Of course, we mean not to deny, that Holland was greatly enriched by her early and immense trade to her numerous colonies in the East Indies, and her enormous carrying trade during the religious troubles in Europe, which prevailed for a considerable portion of the period under review; nor do we deny that a large commercial marine is a powerful auxiliary to the means by which a nation rises into importance, particularly such a country as Holland—from its central situation, its command of some of the most important inlets to the continent of Europe, &c., &c. Being a low country, almost reclaimed from the sea, possessing no great national staple, no mineral treasures; with a soil far from being naturally fertile, entirely level and, therefore, not well adapted to the production of the cereal grains, even when most highly cultivated—being, we say, thus by nature deprived of those endowments which could make it a country of indigenous exports, it must of necessity have recourse to the sea and its products. Accordingly we find its first resort was to the fisheries. But to show this more clearly, we refer to a report made to the stadt-holder, William IV., in answer to certain queries which he addressed to some of the most intelligent merchants of that country, and which questions and answers were as follows, viz:

"1. What is the actual state of trade? and if the same should be found to be diminished and fallen to decay—then,

"2. To inquire by what method the same may be supported and advanced, or, if possible, restored to its former lustre, repute, and dignity."

To this it was replied:

"1. That the natural and physical causes, are, the advantages of the situation of the country, on the sea and at the mouth of considerable rivers; its situation between the northern and southern parts, which by being in a manner the centre of all Europe, made the republic become the general market, where the merchants on both sides used to bring their superfluous commodities, in order to barter and exchange the same for other goods they wanted. Nor have the barrenness of the country, and the necessities of the natives arising from that cause, less contributed to set them upon exciting all their application, industry, and utmost stretch of genius to fetch from foreign countries what they stand in need of in their own, and to support themselves by trade.

"The abundance of fish in the neighbouring seas, put them in a condition not only to supply their own occasions, but with the overplus to carry on a trade with foreigners, and out of the produce of the fishery to find an equivalent for what they wanted through the sterility and narrow boundaries and extent of their own country.

"2. Among the moral and political causes are to be placed the unalterable maxim and fundamental law relating to the free exercise of different religions; and always to consider this toleration and connivance as the most effectual means to draw foreigners from adjacent countries to settle and reside here, and so become instrumental to the peopling of these provinces.

"Throughout the whole course of all the persecutions that have occurred in other countries, the steady adherence of the republic to this fundamental law, has been the cause that many people have not only fled hither for refuge with their whole stock in ready cash, and their most valuable effects, but have, *also, settled and established many trades, fabrics, manufactures, arts, and sciences* in this country, notwithstanding the raw materials for the said fabrics and manufactures were almost wholly wanting in it, and not to be procured but at a great expense from foreign parts.

"The constitution of our form of government, and the liberty thus accruing to the citizen, are further reasons to which the growth of trade and its establishment in the republic may fairly be ascribed—and all her policy and laws are put upon such an equitable footing, that neither life estates nor dignities depend on the caprice or arbitrary power of any single individual, nor is there any room for any person, who by care, frugality, and diligence, has once acquired an efficient fortune, to fear a depreciation of it by any act of violence, oppression, or injustice.

"The administration of justice has, in like manner, always been clearly impartial and without distinction of superiour or inferiour rank—whether the parties have been rich or poor, or were *this* a foreigner and *that* a native; and it were greatly to be wished we could at this day boast of such impartial quickness and despatch in all our legal processes, considering how great an influence it has on trade.

"To sum up all amongst the moral and political causes of the former flourishing state of trade, may be likewise traced the wisdom and prudence of the administration; the intrepid firmness of the councils, the faithfulness with which treaties and engagements were wont to be fulfilled and ratified; and particularly the care and caution practiced to preserve tranquility and peace, and to decline instead of entering on a scene of war, merely to gratify the ambitious views of gaining fruitless or imaginary conquests.

"By these moral and political maxims was the glory and reputation of the republic so far spread, and foreigners animated to place so great a confidence in the steady determination of a state so wisely and prudently conducted, that a concourse of them stocked the country with an augmentation of inhabitants and useful hands, whereby its trade and opulence were, from time to time, increased.

"3. Amongst the adventitious and external causes of the rise and flourishing state of our trade may be reckoned, that at the time when the best and wisest maxims were adopted in the republic as the means of making trade flourish, they were neglected in almost all other countries, and any one reading the history of those times may easily discover that the persecutions, on account of religion, throughout Spain, Brabant, Flanders, and many other states and kingdoms, have powerfully promoted the establishment of commerce in the republic.

"To this happy result *and the settlement of manufactures in our country*, the long continuance of the civil wars in France, which were afterwards carried on in Germany, England, and divers other parts, have, also, very much contributed.

"It must be added, in the last place, that during our most burthensome and heavy wars with Spain and Portugal, (however ruinous that period was for commerce,) those powers had both neglected their navy; while the navy of the republic, by a conduct directly the reverse, was at the same time formidable, and in a capacity not only to protect the trade of its own citizens, but to annoy and to crush that of their enemies in all quarters."

The report then adverts to the actual state of the trade of the country, and goes on to state:

"1. That the *natural causes* of prosperity remained still the same as they were originally, with the exception of the fisheries, which were now greatly shared by others; to which may be attributed the decrease of the herring, cod, and whale fisheries.

"2. That the *moral causes* existed still, and required only to be acted upon.

"3. That *the accidental or extreme causes* had greatly changed; that the persecutions in other countries had ceased; that the negligence, indolence, and contempt for trade, which had formerly prevailed in foreign states, had diminished; that the commercial regulations of Holland had been adopted by them, and that trade and manufactures were flourishing in many of those states; that the English were the first among whom the Hollanders had excited emulation; that for a century that nation had passed laws and regulations in order to attract to them the trade enjoyed by the republic; that they prohibited the export of their wool, which was formerly manufactured in Holland; and that many other countries had directed their attention to those branches of industry which had previously only flourished in Holland."

As proof of the decline of trade the report cites, "That the great number of shops, which have been closed, even in twenty years, in the principal towns, and especially at Amsterdam; the difficulty of procuring seamen for the shipping; and that in Amsterdam, which was formerly the entrepot for indigo and all other dye stuffs, scarcely a vestige of these remained; that Hamburg and all other towns supplied Germany with sugar, coffee, and other articles, which were formerly stored for sale at Amsterdam; that the latter had now no commercial houses in Spain, and little interest in the galleons, and also that the trade of the Dutch in the Levant had disappeared. *That the prodigious quantities of cotton and printed cloth manufactories and sugar refineries established in Hamburg*, Bremen, and recently in Brabant and Flanders, are certain proofs of the decline of our trade and manufactures; and to what are we to attribute this decay? is it not to our overwhelming imposts?

"Formerly the republic was the only country that could be truly said to be a commercial power, and foreigners consented to pay the imposts whether on purchases or sales; but during the last century the commercial system had entirely changed in Europe. Foreign states having beheld the surprising effects of our traffic, and to what an eminent degree the republic had been elevated by commerce alone, have applied themselves successfully to trade, and to avoid our heavy charges, pass with their superfluous products to other countries, the produce of which they take in return."

The memoir then recommends to impose no duty on raw materials, or on foreign goods placed in entrepot, or for transit; and, in one word, that the lighter the burthens were, the greater would be the trade.

On the other hand, the author of La Richesse de la Hollande, combats these opinions, and denies that the competition of foreigners caused the decline of trade; or that the introduction of luxury has been a leading cause of the decline. He ascribes it "to the heavy taxation for sustaining wars, and for paying the interest of the heavy national debt. The interruption of trade and the destruction or capture of property at sea and in the colonies, and the taxation occasioned by these wars, may be considered the principal causes of Holland's decline."

The advocates of the so-called "Free Trade" are continually bringing forward Holland as a test of their theory, and holding that country up as an example to the United States; we have therefore inserted the foregoing questions and answers, to show that there is no kind of analogy whatever between the two countries. Entirely destitute, from the testimony of her own merchants, as we have shown her to be, of all those national advantages which we so eminently possess; she having no great staple, while we have cotton for ourselves, and for all the world besides; possessing no minerals, whilst we abound in every species of them. She with an acknowledged sterile soil that does not produce sufficient for her own consumption, while ours is the most fertile and productive. Holland having, in 1838, but a population of about three millions, while ours must have been at least seventeen millions. The area of Holland is about twelve thousand—while we have upwards of two millions *square miles*, with every variety of climate; she confined to one temperature. What possible analogy is there in our national endowments? But it is useless to make further comparison, for there is literally nothing common to the two countries.

But is Holland a country of "Free Trade?" We unhesitatingly answer she is not. However moderate may be her impost upon goods for transit, and such as she needs and cannot either produce or make, she takes care to encourage, by high duties, and even by a prohibition, of such as interfere with her home industry. We have before us the last tariff of Holland in operation in 1842, where we find the following articles prohibited:

Empty casks and fish barrels, salted or smoked fish, dried fish, syrups of all kinds, tobacco pipes, dye-woods, and Brazil-wood ground, and molasses. The reason of these prohibitions is obvious; it is to protect their coopers, their fisheries, and their sugar refineries which produce molasses.

Besides these prohibitions, the following articles pay very heavy duties, amounting, in many cases, to prohibition:

Flour, 20 florins per 100 lbs., equal to $16 per barrel. Sugar pays duty and excise equal to $3 92 per 100 lbs. Refined sugar pays 14½ cents per lb. Hams pay $4 80 per 100 lbs. Beef pays $6 40 per 100 lbs. Ribs of beef $8 per 100 lbs. Vinegar pays $3 per barrel. Spermaceti and wax candles pay 16 cents per lb.

Woollen cloths, costing per yard from	80 cts.	to $1 60	$28 per 100 lbs.
" " " "	$1 60 "	to 2 40	40 " "
" " " "	2 40 "	to 3 20	48 " "
" " Costing more than	3 20 "		60 " "

Sewing silk 40 per cent., snuff per 100 lbs. $4 80, starch 4 cts. pr. lb.

And for the information of our agriculturists, we state that Holland has Corn-Laws similar to those of Great Britain, upon a sliding scale, which perfectly exclude wheat, rye, barley, and oats, established as late as 1836, as will be found by Table A. on next page.

This Corn-Law, it will be seen by a recent decree of William II., King of Holland, has been suspended in consequence of the shortness of the potato crop.

This limited suspension fully proves that restriction on her corn trade is a policy to which Holland intends to adhere, and that, therefore, in the general, foreign corn will be excluded.

TABLE A.—DUTCH CORN-LAW.

Table of Import, Export, and Transit Duties, levied agreeably to the Provisions of the Dutch Corn-law which came into operation the 2d of January, 1836:

Average Prices of the undermentioned Descriptions of Grain, as fixed by law per Muid.*									Price per Quarter in English Money.				Duty per Muid in Dutch Money.		Duty per Quarter in English Money.		Export Duty per Muid.	Transit Duty per Muid.
	fl.	s.	d.		fl.	s.	d.	The	s.	d.	s.	d.	fl.	c.	s.	d.	c.	c.
Wheat—not exceeding	5 vl.	8	4					Muid	25	0			3	0	15	0	exmp.	10 or 2d.
“ above	5 ..	8	4	and not exceeding	5½ vl.	9	2	do.	25	0	to 27	6	2	50	12	6	do.	
“ “	5½ ..	9	2	“	6 ..	10	0	do.	27	6	30	0	2	0	10	0	do.	
“ “	6 ..	10	0	“	7 ..	11	8	do.	30	0	35	0	1	50	7	6	do.	
“ “	7 ..	11	8	“	8 ..	13	4	do.	35	0	40	0	1	0	5	0	do.	
“ “	8 ..	13	4	“	9 ..	15	0	do.	40	0	45	0	0	50	2	6	do.	
“ “	9 ..	15	9					do.	45	0			0	25	1	3	50 or 10d.	
Rye—not exceeding	3½ ..	5	10					do.	17	6			2	0	10	0	exmp.	5 or 1d.
“ above	3½ ..	5	10	“	4 ..	6	8	do.	17	6	20	0	1	50	7	6	do.	
“ “	4 ..	6	8	“	4½ ..	7	6	do.	20	0	22	6	1	0	5	0	do.	
“ “	4½ ..	7	6	“	5 ..	8	4	do.	22	6	25	0	0	75	3	9	do.	
“ “	5 ..	8	4	“	5½ ..	9	2	do.	25	0	27	6	0	50	2	5	do.	
“ “	5½ ..	9	2	“	6 ..	10	0	do.	27	6	30	0	0	30	1	6	do.	
“ “	6 ..	10	0						30	0			0	15	0	9	30 or 6d.	
Barley & Malt. } not exceeding	2½ ..	4	2					do.	12	6			1	50	7	6	exmp.	5 or 1d.
“ above	2½ ..	4	0	“	3 ..	5	0	do.	12	6	15	0	1	25	6	3	do.	
“ “	3 ..	5	0	“	3½ ..	5	10	do.	15	0	17	6	1	0	5	0	do.	
“ “	3½ ..	5	10	“	4 ..	6	8	do.	17	6	20	0	0	75	3	9	do.	
“ “	4 ..	6	8	“	4½ ..	7	6	do.	20	0	22	6	0	50	2	6	do.	
“ “	4½ ..	7	6	“	5 ..	8	4	do.	22	6	25	0	0	25	1	3	do.	
“ “	5 ..	8	4					do.	25	0			0	10	0	6	25 or 5d.	
Oats—not exceeding	2 ..	3	4					do.	10	0			1	25	6	3	exmp.	5 or 1d.
“ above	2 ..	3	4	“	2½ ..	4	2	do.	10	0	12	6	1	0	5	0	do.	
“ “	2½ ..	4	2	“	3 ..	5	0	do.	12	6	15	0	0	75	3	9	do.	
“ “	3 ..	5	0	“	3½ ..	5	10	do.	15	0	17	6	0	50	2	6	do.	
“ “	3½ ..	5	10	“	4 ..	6	8	do.	17	6	20	0	0	30	1	6	do.	
“ “	4 ..	6	8	“	4½ ..	7	6	do.	20	0	22	6	0	15	0	9	do.	
“ “	4½ ..	7	7						22	6			0	5	0	3	15 or 3d.	

* The English Imperial Quarter is equal to 3 Muids, or Mudden.

SUSPENSION OF THE CORN-LAWS, ON ACCOUNT OF THE DISEASE OF THE PRESENT CROP OF THE POTATO.

In the Staats "Courant," published at the Hague, under date of September 15th, we find a Royal Order of 14th September, 1845, giving an account of the measures adopted by the Dutch Government in consequence of the disease generally prevailing throughout Holland in the potato. It is as follows:

DECREE.

"We, William II., &c., &c., seeing Article 2 of the law of 19th June, 1845;

"Having taken into consideration the unfavourable prospect of the crop of potatoes, which are one of the principal articles of food for the most numerous class; and that the general interest, as well as that of the commerce and manufactures of the country, requires that we should prevent by all means a rise in the price of provisions;

"Having likewise taken into consideration that in this respect the government should take no other measures than such as may tend to encourage, as much as possible, the importation of provisions for the working classes;

"On the report of our Minister of Finance, on the 9th September, 1845,

"Having consulted with our Minister of the Interior, with advice of our Council of State,

"Have decreed and decree—

"Art. 1. From the 15th of September, the import duties on the following articles are:—

"Potatoes, five cents per 10 muid.

"Barley, one cent per 100 lbs.

"Rice, one cent per 100 lbs.

"Beans, peas, and lentils, 10 cents per last.

"Groats and pearl barley, three florins per 100 lbs.

"Flour, five florins per 100 lbs.

"This scale is fixed on all parcels of those articles which shall be declared for importation on and after the 15th of September.

"Art. 2. We shall propose to the States-General in the next session the necessary measures to give legal validity to the regulations of Article 1 of the present decree, and, also, to fix till the 1st of June, 1846, or later, if it should be judged necessary, the import duty on rye and buckwheat, at the rate fixed for the present month of September, of 15 cents per muid, and on wheat and rye, for the same period, at 25 and 10 cents per muid on the minimum of the duties fixed on these kinds of grain, by the law of the 29th December, 1834.

"Our Minister of Finance is charged with the execution of the present decree, which is to be inserted in the bulletin of the law, and copies sent to our Minister of the Interior, and to the Council of State."

The muid is about four Winchester (English) bushels. Tabe A. shows the present rate of duty, which is by this decree to stand suspended till the 1stof June, 1846.

It is stated in the "Staats Courant," that the produce of potatoes in 1843, was 14,662,571 muids, and in 1844, 13,552,030 muids, and it is estimated from returns already received that two-thirds, if not three-fourths, of the crop of potatoes are injured, if not destroyed, by the disease.

The crops of rye, wheat, buckwheat, barley, beans, and peas, will not fall short of last years' yield.

But we must proceed with our historical sketch—and here commence it, by stating that according to the learned Gerard Brant's history of the reformation in the low countries, that part of them, called Holland, first obtained that name about the year 913, which was given to it by the Normans on account of its low situation; the German word "hohl," from whence it was derived, being synonymous with the English term "hollow," and denoting a concave or very low country. It is applied to the seven United Provinces, Gelderland, Holland, Zealand, Utrecht, Overyssel, Groningen, and Friesland, but primarily, all belonging to Holland, the chief of them.

It is said that about the year 993, Arnold, Earl of Holland, Zealand, and Friesland, first held his territories of the German Empire, and not of France, as had hitherto been the case.

We find little said of Holland till about 1164, when historians say she first began to have a regular herring fishery; yet it was two centuries after this, before she discovered the true method of pickling them, although they had long before salted them for the purpose of preserving them for a short period.

The overthrow of the Western Roman Empire had caused most of the governments of its dismembered provinces to consist of a prince and baronage or landed gentry, before cities and towns grew up into any importance by means of manufactures and commerce. Yet, in the latter part of the twelfth and the beginning of the thirteenth century, those barons began to be regarded with a very jealous eye by these princes. Pensionary De Witt, in his interest of Holland, observes: "That the ancient earls of Holland were so jealous of the growing power of those landed gentry, that they frequently demolished many of their castles; and that the earls, by way of overawing those gentry, did at various times, and more particularly at the beginning of the nineteenth century, build several cities in Holland, bestowing various immunities on people who should inhabit there. The earls were averse to those cities having walls and gates, for the same reason that they disliked the baron's castles. Yet, in process of time, many of these cities, by presents of money to their earls, obtained leave to fortify themselves, and thereby, through their industry, became possessed of power and riches so that they created great jealousy in the earls, who destroyed some and pulled down the gates of others."

In 1234, the provinces of Holland and Zealand had become so powerful in shipping, that Florence, the son of William, Earl of Holland, is said to have fitted out a large fleet at the Pope's decree, in order to join Henry, son to Duke Henry of Brabant, and Theodore, Earl of Cleves, against the Stadings, who were declared heretics—though who these Stadings were, is not so clear, unless they might be the Waldenses or Albigenses. This we learn from the Chromica Zelandica. Middleburg, 1635.

Pensionary De Witt, however, says, "That before the year 1300, most of the cities of Holland were oppressed so that there was but little commerce; but about this year they began to gain the Flemish and Brabant manufacturers who forsook their former places of abode; but they lost most of them again about the year 1450, or soon after, when the Dukes of Burgundy were able, by their forces, to subdue all those cities."

"Before the halls and tumults," says Pensionary De Witt, in another place, "had removed the weaving trade to England, the Netherlands could formerly do well enough with that kingdom, the English being only shepherds and wool merchants; and their king received but few other imposts but from wool exported; no less depending on the Netherlands, who were almost the only weavers in Europe, than the weavers on them."

The same author, writing of the period of about 1435, says, "That heretofore in Flanders, Brabant, and Holland, many inhabitants were maintained by manufactures, fisheries, and traffic, with the Easterlings, or Hansetowns, on the south shores of the Baltic, who were the only carriers and mariners by sea; but the Hansetowns gradually lost the same to the Dutch, the owners of these freight ships being by degrees compelled by the Dutch manufactures, fisheries, and traffic, to forsake their country and settle in Holland."

Having vanquished the fleets of the Hansetowns in several engagements, about the year 1472, the Hollanders were very considerably advanced in maritime power and commerce; for in the year 1471, their giving aid to Charles, the bold Duke of Burgundy, drew upon them the resentment of the great Earl of Warwick, who, being supported by King Louis XI., of France, took thirty Dutch merchant ships in one day, and soon after twenty more. But Van Borsele very soon after revenged their disaster, by attacking Warwick with a fleet of thirty-six sail, on the coast of Normandy, retaking ten of those ships and burning the remainder.

In 1521, there was a great breach from the sea in the Holland dykes, by which seventy-two villages were inundated, and one hundred thousand people were said to be drowned. In 1547, De Witt says, "Holland fitted out eight ships of war for the defence of her herring fishery."

The immense fisheries of Holland, not only on the coast of England for herrings, but, also, the Greenland whale fisheries, greatly excited the jealousy of England; so much so, that Sir Walter Raleigh, in a report made thereupon, to King James I., is noticed by De Witt, who thus quotes it:

"And indeed if that be true which Sir Walter Raleigh affirms, who made diligent inquiry thereinto for King James's information, viz: that the Hollanders fished on the coast of Great Britain with no fewer than three thousand ships, and fifty thousand men; and that they employed and sent to sea, to transport and sell the fish so taken, and to make returns thereof, near nine thousand ships more, and one hundred and fifty thousand men besides by sea and land; and if we hereunto add what he saith further, that every twenty vessels do, one way or other, maintain eight thousand people, and that the Hollanders had, in all, no fewer than twenty thousand ships at sea, as, also, that their fishing navigation and traffic by sea with its dependencies, since that time to the year 1677, is increased one third more; I say, if that be so, we may then easily conclude that the sea is a special means of Holland's subsistence."

In another place, De Witt himself asserts, "That in the province of Holland the fishing maintains five hundred and fifty thousand people."

With respect to the whale fishing of the Hollanders, De Witt quotes Lieven Van Aitzman, who says: "That the whale fishing to the northward employs above twelve thousand men at sea;" "which," says Anderson, "shows that the Dutch had, probably, in the early part of the sixteenth century, near three hundred sail of ships employed in the whale fishery, when England had none at all employed therein."

All this seems almost incredible in the numbers stated, but it is from high authority, such as is believed when writing of less wonderful things which occurred at those remote periods. In the same year, 1547, sixty ships sailed from the port of Southampton for the Netherlands with wool, *so vast was the woollen manufacture, even at this time, in the Low Countries.*

Lewis Guicciardini, in his description of the Netherlands, now testifies to the very considerable commerce of Holland, even before their revolt from Spain. He relates, that about 1560, the Hollanders brought annually from Denmark, Eastland, Livonia, and Poland, sixty thousand lasts of grain, chiefly rye, then worth one million six hundred and eighty thousand crowns, or five hundred and sixty thousand pounds Flemish; that the single province of Holland alone had above eight hundred good ships, from two hundred to seven hundred tons burthen each; that twice in every year fleets of three hundred ships together came in from Dantzick and Levorica; that five hundred ships were often seen lying together before the city of Amsterdam, and mostly their own, so that for the greatness of its commerce, Amsterdam was even the next to Antwerp, of all the towns of the Netherlands."

Guicciardini, in writing about the Netherlands, says: "That in 1560, at Bois le Duc, Leyden, and Amsterdam, they then made about ten thousand pieces of cloth and serges at each of these places annually." They have no wool of their own at Amsterdam, yet they make infinite quantities of cloth. And one hundred years after this, Sir William Temple, in writing of Holland, says, "Never any country traded so much and consumed so little. They buy infinitely, but it is to sell again. They are the great masters of the Indian spices and Persian silks, yet wear plain woollens, and feed upon their own fish and roots. They sell the finest of their own manufactures of cloth to France, and buy coarse cloth from England for their own wear. They send abroad the best of their own butter, and buy the cheapest out of Ireland or the north of England for their own use. In short, they furnish infinite luxury which they never practice, and traffic in lxuries which they never taste."

The year 1585 was remarkable for the sacking of the city of Antwerp. The Duke of Parma entered the city with his army, and Famianus Strada, in his history of the Low Country wars, relates, "That they most miserably plundered the richest port town in all Christendom for three days together, to the value of at least two millions of pistoles, besides an infinite amount of rich merchandise and furniture destroyed by fire. Near three thousand of the inhabitants fell by the sword—fifteen hundred were either burnt or trodden to death, and as many drowned in the Scheldt."

In 1605, the King of Spain prohibited the Dutch from trading to Spain, the East or West Indies.

About this time the Dutch East India Company's ships drove the Spanish and Portuguese from the Moluccas, and soon after established settlements in the Persian Gulf. The East India Company are said to have divided seventy per cent. the following year.

In 1609, a truce was made between Spain and Holland, upon the principle of the "Uti possedetis," each holding what they possessed. The following year the East India Company divided fifty per cent.

In 1611, the Dutch opened a trade to Japan, upon favourable terms made with that people.

In 1612, Holland monopolized all the cinnamon in Ceylon. Next year the East India Company divided thirty-seven per cent.

In 1614, they, the Hollanders, made their second voyage round the globe. In 1616, the East India Company divided sixty-two and a half per cent., and next year made a settlement at Goree. About this time, De Witt says, "3,000 vessels employed 13,000 sailors in the northern whale fishery; and in 1638, Peter Herr takes the whole fleet of Spanish galleons, and brought 10,000,000 of guilders to Holland in the precious metals; and in 1621 they take St. Salvador from the Spaniards, the truce having expired."

The Dutch West India Company was established this year, but they divide twenty-five per cent., neglect trade, and are finally ruined.

In 1624, the finest woollen cloths are manufactured in Holland.

In 1628, the East India Company's fleet captured the Spanish Plate fleet, and divide fifty per cent.

In 1635, they take the island of Formosa, on the coast of China, and expel the Chinese.

In 1635, the British drive them from the fishing banks, and oblige them to pay £30,000 for permission to fish that summer on the coast of England.

In 1636, 1637, they extended their conquests over the Portuguese in Brazil and Africa, and drove them out of Ceylon, for which the King of that island reimburses them with cinnamon, pepper, &c.

In 1639, Van Tromp defeats a Spanish armada, destroying most of the ships. He also captures a Portuguese galleon.

In 1640, they drive the Portuguese out of Malacca.

In 1648, the treaty of Westphalia was made, and the independence of the States General acknowledged by Philip IV., of Spain. The building of the great stadthouse of Amsterdam was commenced this year. Sir William Temple considers that the commerce of the United Provinces had now reached its meridian glory, and in 1673 had passed its climax, which he says arose from the general peace of Munster having restored to other nations *manufactures*, navigation, and trade; and De Witt says that in 1650 the single province of Holland was able to pay 140,000,000 of guilders, the expenses of the war with Spain, besides many other debts and taxes. Dutch vessels had for some time been employed by England in her trade to her own colonies, and the famous navigation act was passed to favour English ships, and to destroy the carrying trade of Holland. The English made such heavy demands upon the Dutch for alleged injuries, that in the next year a fierce war broke out between England and Holland, and Van Tromp sailed up and down the English Channel, carrying a broom at his mast head. About this time Monk and Deane on the part of the English, and Van Tromp, De Witt, and the two Eversons on the part of Holland, came to a bloody sea fight, in which the latter were defeated, with eleven ships taken, six sunk, and two blown up. Soon after this there was another naval engagement in which the Dutch were defeated, twenty-seven ships being either sunk or blown up.

In 1654, peace was made, and the Dutch agreed to the disgraceful terms of striking their flag and lowering their topsail on passing an English ship.

In 1656, Amsterdam much enlarged.

In 1661, the Chinese regained Formosa, expelling the Dutch.

In 1664, New York, then called New Amsterdam, Albany, Staten Island, and Long Island, taken from the Dutch by the English, who then founded the province of New York; and the same year the English took several places on the coast of Africa, which were afterwards re-taken by De Ruyter.

In 1665, the Dutch lose all their possessions in Brazil.

About this time, say from 1665 to 1668, a most bloody naval war existed between England and the United Provinces. 103 ships of war, 11 fire ships, defeated by the Duke of York. 150 Dutch merchantmen were destroyed on the coast of Holland—while the Dutch make many descents on the coast of England.

In 1669, De Witt says, "Amsterdam is a city of greater traffic, and

Holland a richer merchandising country, than ever was in the world. Their situation for an easy and quick communication with all the coasts of Friesland, Overyssel, Gelderland, and North Holland, their situation also, for receiving the fishery and for a repository for all sorts of merchandise, to be afterwards re-shipped to all parts of the world, as demands may offer, and for letting out ships for freight, give her the greatest advantages. Also, their acquiring the whole spice trade of India, and a great West India trade; the whale fishery; the trade in Italian raw silk, which the Germans were wont to bring by land from Italy, until the German wars lost them that trade; *and afterwards their manufacturing the raw silk themselves; their great woollen manufacture.*" And, in short, he observes, "The Hollanders had well nigh beaten all nations by traffic out of the seas, *and become the carriers of goods throughout the world!*"

Beawes, the author of the "Lex Meicatoria," speaking of Holland, says: "It produces hardly any thing, and yet has wherewith to furnish other people all they can have need of. It is without forests and almost without wood, and there is not seen any where else so many carpenters, which work in naval constructions either for war or merchandise. Its lands are not fit for the culture of vines, and it is the staple or mart of wines—which are gathered in all parts of the world—and of brandies drawn from them.

"It has no mines nor metals, and yet, *there* is found almost as much gold and silver as in New Spain or Peru; as much iron as in France; as much tin as in England; and as much copper as in Sweden. The wheat and other grains that are there sowed, hardly suffice for nourishment to a part of its inhabitants, and it is, notwithstanding, from hence that the greater part of its neighbours receive them, either for subsistence or trade: in fine, it seems as if the spices grew there; that the oils were gathered there; that it nourished the precious insects which spun the silk; and that all sorts of drugs for medicine or dyeing were in the number of its products and of its growth; its warehouses are so full, and its merchants seem to carry so much to strangers, or that strangers come to load in its ports, that there is not a day, and it may be said a moment, that ships do not come in or go out, and frequently entire fleets."

This account of the trade of Holland is in the main confirmed by all writers on the commerce of the sixteenth and seventeenth centuries. We therefore pause here for a moment to inquire, what possible analogy, in comparison, exists between such a country and the great western empire—the United States. We have stated in a previous part of this article, in general terms, that nothing can be more absurd than any attempt to institute such a comparison; and we think, what we have stated in the cursory account we have given, from the best authorities, fully proves that in the time of her great prosperity, Holland, besides having many valuable manufactures, was a *depot* for the proceeds of the industry of other nations, employing her own people in the most profitable manner they could be employed, viz: in manufactures and in the carrying trade. Some little analogy there is between the commercial period we have here reviewed, and that which occurred between 1790 and 1815, during the twenty-five years almost continual wars incident to the French revolution, when the United States became the carrying nation for all the world—but even this analogy is but small—for this country, during that period, not only provided itself abundantly with all the necessaries of life, but furnished them in large quantities to the belligerents. Our industry then found full employment, in raising raw produce, in transporting it where it commanded high prices, and in conveying colonial produce to the mother countries; but since the whole face of the commercial world is changed, we have neither the market for our farinaceous productions, nor are our ships needed as carriers for other nations. True political economy, therefore, says, fall back upon your internal resources, for you are endowed by nature with every thing in superfluous abundance. You have every thing whichthe mineral kingdom offers to the necessities, the comforts, and the luxuries of man. Iron inexhaustible; coal ready to leap from the mines, instead of being buried in the deep bowels of the earth; lead and copper ores with the smallest possible portion of extraneous matter; every species of earth to form into all descriptions of vessels. In fine, it is much more difficult to say what we have not, than to enumerate what we possess. What then must be thought of politicians, or political economists, who would invent or follow themes so absurd, as those must be, which prescribe to this blessed land of twenty millions of people, teeming with every production of nature, and behind none other in industry and ingenuity to produce those of every art and every science, the same policy which is required to sustain a small territory reclaimed from the sea, with a population of not more than three millions; a territory devoid of every metal, and every mineral, and with a soil that will not produce sufficient for the sustenance of its inhabitants? Have we not truly said nothing can be more absurd?

But to return to our narrative, which we left in 1669. In 1674, there was peace between England and Holland. In 1689, William III., of England, and the States General, unite and prohibit all trade with France.

In 1693, the French captured eighty English and Dutch vessels. In 1713, under the treaty of Utrecht, they enjoy peace.

From 1730 to 1734, they carried on an immense trade to India, the East India Company dividing twenty-five per cent. In the latter year, 1,721 ships from foreign countries entered the port of Amsterdam.

Anderson gives the following as a list of the Dutch East India possessions in 1747:

The Cape of Good Hope. A factory at Bassora. A factory at Surat. On the west coast of Malabar they had Cananor, Panane, Cranganor, Cochin, Porcha, Carnapole, Coulan, Tegnapatam, Calecut—all taken from the Portuguese.

The entire ports in the Island of Ceylon.

In Manaae Island, Teutecerin and Manapar.

On the coast of Coromandel, Negapatam, Porto Novo, Sadraspatam, Cabelon, Pulicat, Caletorer, Masulapatam, Benlapatam, &c.

In Malacca, the port of that name.

In the Island of Java they had Batavia, and six other ports. Factories at Siam, and at Lizoree. Also, a factory at Aracan, in the kingdom of that name. Macassar, in the Isle of Celebes. In the Isle of Borneo, Solor, Buro, Poleroon, Noro, Ceram, Amboy, &c. Factories, also, at Amboyna, Ternate, Banda, and Timor, called the Spice Islands.

In Persia, Gomron, Ispahan, and Balsora.

In 1762, a great number of failures took place in Amsterdam and Hamburg.

In 1773, the East India Company's charter expired and on their informing the States General of the decline of their trade, it was renewed with the payment of a reduced sum, say 2,000,000 of florins, instead of 3,000,000, which they had before paid.

In 1780, their furnishing the United States with whatever supplies we needed, brought on a war with England.

In 1781, they united with Russia and Sweden in what was called the armed neutrality.

This treaty declared, " That all neutral vessels shall be permitted to navigate from port to port, and on the coast of the belligerent powers, and that the *effects* of belligerents shall be free, excepting contraband articles on board of ships."

This year Mr. Lawrens, who had been American ambassador to Holland, was passenger on board a ship bound home, and was taken by a British man-of-war on the banks of Newfoundland, which put into their possession, found among his papers, the secret treaty made by him with Holland, in which Holland acknowledged the independence of the United States. This caused the capture of St. Eustatia, by Lord Rodney, who confiscated all public and *private* property.

In 1787, troubles and insurrection took place in Holland, which seriously injured her trade. The King of Prussia sent an army of 30,000 men there to protect his sister.

In 1793, the war of the French revolution was now directed against Holland. She was compelled to pay one and a half millions of pounds sterling. The commerce was completely broken up. Professor Roch, on this, observes, " That of all the countries brought under the yoke of Napoleon, the most unfortunate was Holland; her commerce, the only resource of her numerous inhabitants, was annihilated by the continental system; her finances were in such a state of disorder that, in spite of all her economy, the annual deficit was regularly about 20,000,000 of florins;* her inhabitants were as much harrassed by the soldiers of Bonaparte as by his revenue officers; and as if nature, in concert with political oppression, had conspired her ruin, her soil was laid waste, and her industry destroyed by periodical inundations, fires, and other calamities. Such is the picture which that wretched country presented up to the moment when Bonaparte extinguished the feeble remains of independence which it enjoyed. After various alterations, that republic obtained a constitution similar to that which has existed in France since 1804. M. Schemmelpennenk was placed at the head of the government, (April, 1805,) under the title of Grand Pensionary, and vested with such powers as the last stadtholders had exercised, even after the revolution of 1788.

" Louis Bonaparte had, in 1806, reluctantly accepted the crown of Holland, but from the moment he placed it on his head, he had nothing more at heart than the interest of the country, and resisted, as far as prudence would allow, the tyrannical orders of his brother, when he judged them prejudicial to the interests of Holland. This gave rise to frequent broils, accompanied sometimes with threats. Bonaparte reproached the Dutch government more especially, for not earnestly and vigorously enforcing the continental system so pernicious to their commerce.

" At the beginning of the year 1810, things had come to such a state, that it was expected Napoleon, in a moment of chagrin, would cancel the kingdom of Holland from the list of European States. To avert this calamity Louis signed a treaty at Paris, March 16th, by which a body of 12,000 Dutch and 6,000 French, were to be stationed at the mouths of all the rivers to protect the swarms of French revenue officers who were superintending the execution of Bonaparte's orders. Louis ceded to him Dutch Brabant, Zealand, and a part of Gueldres, of which the Waal was henceforth to form the frontier. In vain did that excellent man hope, by so great a sacrifice, to purchase the independence of his kingdom. Under pretence of certain insults which the French agents had received at the hands of the exasperated people, Bonaparte sent a French army to occupy the whole country. Then it was that Louis resigned a crown which he could no longer wear with honour; he abdicated in favour of his son, July 3d. But Napoleon, indignant at a measure in which he had not been consulted, annexed the kingdom of Holland to the French Empire, by a decree dated at Rambouillet, July 9th, and the Dutch monarchy vanished at the fiat of Napoleon."

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* The value of a Dutch florin is 20d sterling, or about forty cents.

In 1814, the independence of Holland was restored, and with Belgium erected into one kingdom, of which the sovereignty was rendered hereditary in the family of the Prince of Orange. Java and all the Dutch colonies were ceded to Holland, at the same time, with the exception of the Cape of Good Hope, Demerara, Essequibo, and Berbice.

In 1830, the revolution in Belgium divided the kingdom of the Netherlands into two. That of the Netherlands reduced to the original seven United-Provinces, with a part of Luxemburg and Limburg added, and confirmed, since then, by the treaty of the 19th of April, 1839. Peace has enabled Holland again to extend her navigation, commerce, and colonization, and to construct a naval force.

The materials for obtaining an account of the present state of the trade of Holland with its gradual increase until now, as will be seen in the tables which we insert to be very considerable, are not within our reach, so that we must content ourselves with what we have been enabled to obtain, and shall proceed to give our trade with that country in 1844, in the same manner as we have given it with England and France, in our two preceding numbers.

In concluding this account of the rise, progress, and present state of the trade of Holland, we shall make but one single further remark, and that is, that we feel a thorough conviction, the facts we have collected and given, all taken from undoubted authority, have fully made out our case, namely, that Holland is principally a depot, and always must continue so; that there is no similarity between that country and the United States in any one point; and that, though it may be perfectly good policy for Holland to establish light duties on many articles of impost, yet a similar policy in the United States would lead to a destruction of our manufactures, an unsettlement of our currency, with wide and extended ruin to every branch of our industry.

We add to this general statement, prior to the insertion of the tables, an extract, from a work published at Brussels on the 27th June, 1821, giving an account of the state of things there, at that time and some remarks upon the manufactures of Holland, taken from a late English work.

By this former work, entitled "Considerations sur le projet de Nouveau System Financier de royaume de Pays Bas," we have an account of the then state of the Low Countries, which will be shown by the following extracts taken from it:

REMARKS ON THE STATE OF THE TRADE AND INDUSTRY OF THE LOW COUNTRIES.

"Our people are in the most unfortunate situation for want of work; as it appears from authentic documents submitted to the Staats General, that one-ninth part of the most industrious nation in the world, passionately devoted to labour, is reduced to the abject state of mendicity, or to solicit aid to support their existence; that a still more numerous part, the middle and working class, is circumscribed to the consumption of mere necessaries, and that manufactures and commerce being in a languishing condition, the profits of persons who follow those two branches of industry are insignificant.

"It is the tariff of 1816 which has opened the door to the productions of foreign industry. From that period there has been a constant deficiency in our finances; because the working classes deprived of wages, have been obliged to diminish their consumption of the articles subject to the excise and impost—and because the manufacturers, the merchants, and the traders, deprived of the profit which they derived from the disbursement of the most part of these wages, have likewise been obliged to diminish their consumption. It is since 1816, that the ninth part of the nation is reduced either to mendicity, or to require assistance. It is since 1816, that manufactures and commerce have declined with great strides. It is since 1816, that the metallic medium of the nation has been lavished to pay tribute to foreign industry.

"This disappearance of the specie is most perniciously felt by the reduction of the prices of houses, which, except in Brussels and the Hague, have fallen since that period more than one-third, an irrefragible proof of the impoverishment of the nation: for if our resources were the same as formerly, houses would still command the same price.

"It is ascertained that the immense number of breweries and distilleries, which formerly existed in both parts of the kingdom, have undergone prodigious diminution.

"Since the tariff of 1816 has permitted the entrance of Scotch stockings and thules under light duties—and since then the English thules have almost annihilated our flourishing fabrics of lace, there is good reason to believe that the poor women, who manufactured them, earn at present but four sous per day."

REMARKS ON THE MANUFACTURES OF HOLLAND.

Holland, including Friesland and Gelderland, was a woollen cloth manufacturing country before the time of Charlemagne, who made presents to foreign princes and others of "Frison habits of different colours, and of white, purple, and gray Frison mantles." The early export trade of wool from England to the continent was to supply the Dutch and Flemish cloth weavers. Before the thirteenth century the Hollanders exported various manufactures to England, and took back wool for the use of the weavers.

Leyden was early distinguished for its woollen manufactures, to which that city owed its prosperity. The cloths, as early as 1482, were subjected to inspection by the government authorities. English wool was, at that time, shipped to Calais as an entrepot, and afterwards transhipped to Holland—Philip, Duke of Burgundy, permitting them to pass his frontier town of Gravelines free of transit duty.

In 1466, the cloths of Holland, Zealand, and Friesland, were prohibited to be imported into England by Edward IV. The general opinion is, therefore, erroneous, that there were no manufactures in Holland until its independence, and until after the revocation of the Edict of Nantes. The latter event, and the persecutions in Flanders by the Spaniards, occasioned multitudes of the most skilful manufacturers to fly for safety to Holland, as well as to England. The city of Amsterdam, in 1614, gave premiums and the privileges of citizenship to foreign manufacturers who established themselves in that city. The extension of commerce at that time, also, brought new raw materials into Holland to be manufactured. Fabrics of spermaceti and whale oil, seal oil, white lead, litharge, minium, vermillion, various dye stuffs, camphor, borax, sugar and salt refining, dyeing and bleaching, and delf or earthenware, and many other preparations and fabrics, arose and flourished. Among the woven manufactures, velvets, fine cloths, cambrics, serges, domestics, ribands, galloons, threads, linens, canvass, and paper, were all manufactured, and at this period were in great prosperity. Ironwork for ship building and the anchors and other appurtenances of ships and boats, and all kinds of tools then used, were fabricated in that country. There were, also, immense printing establishments of books in all languages.

. These manufactures flourished at this time in Holland, from the persecutions and commotions which disturbed the industry and arrested the useful inventions of France, Spain, and Flanders. As manufactures arose, aided by improved machinery, in England and France, they declined in Holland. It was evident that Holland could not, with all her disadvantages and her immense internal taxes, compete with England.

Various measures were suggested to restore her declining manufactures, but they failed, and M. Luzac, in his work on the wealth of Holland, speaking of the taxes, says, "Others may, perhaps, examine if these taxes have been judiciously imposed, and if they have been levied with proper economy. It is sufficient to observe that the manufactures of wool, silk, gold, and silver, have succumbed, after having struggled for a long time against the taxation. *Holland has only saved from the shipwreck of her manufactures those which have not been exposed to the competition of other nations.*" At one time Holland made paper and printed books for nearly all Europe.

The woollens of any importance which are now made in Holland are common cloths and hosiery. Linen is chiefly manufactured for home use, and the bleaching of linen, especially at Harlam, is extensively carried on. Diamond cutting, and most kind of lapidaries' work, are still in a profitable state at Amsterdam. Glass manufactures and pipe making, also, continue, while paper mills are very numerous and yield a profit.

The distilleries of Schiedam, and those of Delft and other places, still maintain an important part of the standing manufactures of the country. There are one hundred large distilleries in the former place, and some thousands of swine are fattened on the grains or refuse of these establishments.

Sugar refineries, protected by high duties and drawbacks, have for years been in extensive operation at Amsterdam and Rotterdam.

There is a large engineering establishment and foundry at Feyenoord, near Rotterdam; there is, also, one at the Hague; one at Leyden, chiefly for working up old iron; one at Utrecht, and one at Deventer. The latter uses iron produced from a kind of iron sand found in that neighbourhood, and being the only instance in which the metal is found in its natural state in Holland; but the production is not very considerable. In Rotterdam there are five such establishments of importance.

There are no steel manufactories of any importance in Holland.

IMPORTS FROM HOLLAND TO THE UNITED STATES.

MANUFACTURES.		
Copper, in plates,	$2,178	
Dye woods,	46,118	
Cloths and cassimeres,	6,318	
Woollen hosiery,	764	
Worsted stuffs,	799	
Manufactures of cotton,	204	
Twist, yarn, or thread,	557	
Hosiery,	67	
All other articles of cotton,	102	
Silk floss,	557	
Thread lace,	260	
Linens, bleached, and others,	705	
Clothing ready made,	506	
Other articles of wear,	1,449	
Leather,	23	
Brass,	33	
Iron and steel.	246	
Manufactures of wood,	1,523	
Plate glass,	48	
China and porcelain,	144	
Earthen and stone ware,	472	
Chronometers and clocks,	611	
Jewellery,	412	
Wood, manufactured,	188	
Sewing silk,	28	
Manufactures of silk,	336	
Silk shoes,	12	
Sail duck,	4,314	
Cotton bagging,	12	
Wines,	5,920	
Spirits from grain, (gin,)	150,268	
Other spirits,	1,819	
Cordials and vinegar,	91	
Linseed oil,	12,953	
Cheese,	323	
Musket,	5	
Loaf sugar,	$66,947	
Cigars.	32	
Red and white lead,	177	
Twines, pack thread,	4	
Cut glass,	84	
Bottles,	323	
Steel,	30,457	
Sole and upper leather,	30	
Tanned skins,	479	
Boots and shoes,	10	
Paper,	8	
Books,	472—	$339,379
MISCELLANEOUS ARTICLES.		
Furs, undressed,	$262	
Hatters' and other furs,	24,318	
Coffee,	166,529	
Currants,	68	
Figs,	345	
Mace,	555	
Nutmegs,	76,601	
Cinnamon,	1,988	
Cloves,	1,236	
Pimento.	2,160	
Camphor,	5,476—	$279,538
Articles not enumerated—		
Free of duty, principally madder,	545,897	
Ad valorem,	126,562	
Specific duties,	134—	$672,593
Specie.		236
Pearl barley,		3,176
Hams and bacon.		26
Pickled and dried fish,		1,091
Potatoes,		568
Indigo,		1,984
Coal,		57
Flax,		11,413
		$1,310,061

EXPORTS TO HOLLAND FROM THE UNITED STATES.

Oil, whale and fish,		$518,492
Whalebone,		40,441
Spermaceti candles,		1,696
Lumber, staves, &c.,		11,388
Other lumber,		326
Oak and other barks,		6,543
Rosin and turpentine,		15,559
Pot and pearl ashes,		291,857
Skins and furs,		325
Beef, tallow, and hides,		4,950
Pork and lard,		7,051
Flour,		1,971
Rye, oats, and other grain,		144
Rice,		97,555
Cotton,		$228,589
Tobacco,		1,269,683
Hops,		1,340
Wax,		4,761
Manufactured tobacco,		4,095
Spirits of turpentine,		275
Lead,		5,618
Drugs medicinal,		727
Wearing apparel,		25
Paper and stationary,		70
Articles not enumerated—		
Manufactured.	1,333	
Other articles,	3,246—	4,579
Domestic Exports,		$2,517,921
Foreign Exports,		181,023
Total Exports from United States to Holland,		$2,698,944

Statement exhibiting the Import, Export, and Transit of Holland, in the Spun and Woven Manufactures, during the year 1841.

Description of Goods.	Import.	Export.	Transit.
Cotton yarn not dyed,..........net killogrammes,	9,200,000	20,000	5,480,000
" " dyed,................ " "	1,000,000	25,000	775,000

The imports of undyed yarns are almost all from England, and the export and transit of the same is to Germany—the remaining 3,700,000 killogrammes being for the consumption of Holland, and are used by the manufacturers in Overyssel, North Brabant, Harlem, &c.

The imports of dyed yarn are from England to the extent of three-fourths, and the export and transit are to Germany.

Description of Goods.	Imports. Value, Florins.	Exports. Florins.	Transit. Florins.
Manufactures of cotton, white and printed,....	13,000,000	5,500,000	2,500,000
Value, pounds sterling,..................	1,083,333		

One-half these imports are from England, the exports almost entirely to the East Indies, as well as half of the transit. The remaining exports and transit go to Germany. In 1840, the export and transit to the East Indies was about 2,000,000 more, and in 1842, it will be still less than now, the **Maatschappy* having diminished their orders considerably.

Description of Goods.		Import.	Export.	Transit.
Woollen yarns, undyed,..................	killogrammes,	200,000	2,000	200,000
" " dyed,....................	"	350,000	3,000	260,000
The imports almost all from England, and the transit to Germany.				
Woollen manufactures,..................	"	1,100,000	25,000	475,000
Seven-eighths from England, export and transit to Germany. Cloths and cassimeres were not included in the above, coming chiefly from Germany, Belgium, and France.			Woollen manufactures paying no export duty are seldom included in the above.	
The imports of linen yarns are three-fourths from England. Transit all to Germany.				
Yarns for sewing,......................	Florins, value,	300,000	6,000	75,000
Imports are two-thirds from England. Transit all to Germany.				
Yarns for weaving,.....................	" "	275,000	10,000	100,000
Yarns, raw,.......	" "	1,000,000	7,000	520,000
Manufactures of flax, raw and bleached,..	" "	2,000,000	25,000	100,000
Imports nearly all from Germany. Exports and transit to various countries.				
Dyed and printed,......................	" "	200,000	none.	10,000
Imports three-fourths from Germany. Exports to various countries.				
Table and napkin cloths, white or damask,	" "	150,000	2,000	3,000
Imports all from Germany.				
Bed ticks,.............................	" "	130,000	none.	5,000
Other manufactures of flax, hemp, &c., come from Germany, Russia, England, &c., and are chiefly used for home consumption. There are few manufactures of linen yarns, or linen weaving factories in Overyssel and North Brabant.				
Raw silk,..............................	" "	80,000	none.	65,000
Silk stuffs,...........................	" "	150,000	20,000	140,000
Imports chiefly to France and to Germany. Transit to North America.				

Silk stuffs pay the high duty of 4 florins per killogramme. Scarcely any are imported unless smuggled. The same applies to sewing silks, floret, refuse worked silks, &c.

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* East India monopoly.

Statement of the number of Ships with Corgoes which entered the Ports of the Netherlands, including Belgium, from 1824 *to* 1828, *inclusive.*

	Netherland Flag.		British Flag.		All other Flags.		Total.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships	Tons.	Ships.	Tons
1824,	2,262	214,588	491	46,701	1,908	195,204	4,661	456,493
1825,	2,397	221,219	547	48,968	1,819	184,697	4,763	454,874
1826,	2,657	251,284	641	68,148	2,151	239,905	5,449	559,337
1827,	2,648	255,142	750	95,634	2,415	283,236	5,813	634,012
1828,	2,840	284,061	848	100,774	2,765	338,604	6,453	723,439

Statement of the number of Ships which sailed from the Ports of the Netherlands, including Belgium, during the years 1824 *to* 1828, *inclusive.*

	Netherland Flag.		British Flag.		All other Flags.		Total.	
	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.	Ships.	Tons.
1824,	2,330	255,522	834	70,569	1,387	175,941	4,551	502,032
1825,	2,108	241,333	1,028	83,524	1,292	164,618	4,428	439,475
1826,	1,765	193,414	965	86,798	1,267	161,809	3,997	442,021
1827,	1,726	171,945	1,335	136,874	1,383	150,770	4,444	459,589
1828,	1,807	186,104	1,448	140,317	1,373	154,381	4,628	480,802

COMMERCE BETWEEN HOLLAND AND THE UNITED STATES,

FROM 1821 AND 1830, TO 1833, INCLUSIVE.

Kingdoms and Colonies.		Imports into Holland from the United States of America.		Total.	Exports from Holland to the United States.
		Domestic Produce.	Foreign Produce.		
	Years ending 30th September.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
Netherlands,	1821,	1,964,513	1,739,692	3,694,206	1,938,953
	1830,	3,354,551	675,527	4,010,078	888,408
	1832,	2,232,792	2,870,490	5,103,282	1,360,668
	1833,	1,634,353	722,409	2,356,762	1,166,856
Dutch W. Indies and Amer. Colonies,	1821,	533,259	149,784	623,043	860,950
	1830,	319,495	42,298	361,793	286,509
	1832,	357,520	46,644	409,164	328,832
	1833,	380,720	54,038	434,758	430,197
Dutch East Indies,	1821,	133,010	1,581,803	1,714,813	134,369
	1830,	63,273	107,293	170,556	181,848
	1832,	24,516	503,504	528,020	668,974
	1833,	93,852	680,989	774,841	750,290

NAVIGATION BETWEEN HOLLAND AND THE UNITED STATES.

Kingdoms and Colonies.		American Tonnage.		Foreign Tonnage.	
		Entered the Netherlands.	Departed from the Netherlands.	Entered the Netherlands.	Departed from the Netherlands.
		Tons.	Tons.	Tons.	Tons.
Netherlands,	1821,	26,048	25,851	1,063	1,403
	1830,	36,220	42,998	4,515	793
	1832,	38,770	29,912	8,372	5,630
	1833,	22,483	18,596	6,938	4,864
Dutch W. Indies and American Colonies,	1821,	18,228	16,468	823	422
	1830,	11,043	12,047	124	248
	1832,	9,511	10,176	80	none.
	1833,	11,478	15,939	80	290
Dutch East Indies,	1821,	5,610	1,597	none.	none.
	1830,	1,501	662	220	none.
	1832,	7,456	5,084	680	none.
	1833,	7,497	3,934	1,488	1,740

CLEVELAND, OHIO—WESTERN RESERVE, &c.

CLEVELAND—ITS RISE, GROWTH, AND PRESENT CONDITION.

In glancing at the progress of the western settlements of our country, we know not which of two facts apparent therein, most tend to excite the astonishment of the examinant—the first exhibited broadly on their face in the shape of original forests yet virgin in their guise and growth, with the log cabin of the pioneer standing along the range of their outer shadows; these contrasting abruptly with cultivated fields, belting towns and cities, wherein taste erects her altars and wealth establishes its homes—the whole so intimately neighbourly, that the chime of church bell and the forgeman's anvil music have companionship with the zephyr voices of the age-grown wilderness. . . The other is displayed in the naturalness with which these vast contrasts harmonize into social fitness, the conceded claims of law and order governing the whole, and having for their empire and safety the honest, although in some instances rudely evinced, respect of the borderman for the legal institutions that secure to him the enjoyment of the possessions for which he has so indefatigably toiled. . . True, that at times, he may fret under the application of law rules that he does not clearly comprehend; but his obedience is shown even while he complains, so that amid the unhewn logs of our western law temples, you may see an homage rendered to the awards of courts as complete as is evidenced on the decisions of time-honoured Westminster, or the dockets of old Faneuil.

The truths of the former of these positions meet you at every step, after your journey westward from Buffalo on the one range, or Pittsburg on the other. You track the wilderness to find—sometimes within its depths, even on its marge—the seats of scientific agriculture, the aspiring hamlet soon to claim rank as a city, the city in fact, endowed with all and every metropolitan advantage and instrument, with charter and corporation, with ships and steamers, these latter ploughing waters that but a few years ere while—in all less than a quarter of a century, we may say—sustained no keels other than the canoe of the shore-creeping savage, while their banks, now the theatre of the industry of scores of thousands, was covered with the oaks of ages; rustling the volumned waste, stretching away therefrom, paying tribute to no imperator but the winds.

In the rise, progress, and now settled condition of hundreds of western "locations," the reality of what has been stated, is readily apparent: perhaps in no one of them has the illustration been shown in a more striking manner than in the colonization of Cleveland, as brought into connexion with its position at the present day. . . Let the tracing of its rise be to the reader at once an apology for the triteness of what we have advanced, and the "open sesame" to his indulgence of that which is to follow.

The first landing at the now city of Cleveland, for the purpose of settlement, was in the fall of 1796. Previous to this time, in 1786, the missionary *Ziesberger*, with his followers, quitted Detroit, and were transported in a vessel called the Mackinaw, to the mouth of the Cuyahoga river. Thence they proceeded into the interiour, following the river some eleven miles, to a deserted village* of the Ottawa Indians, and there remained until the April of the ensuing year, when they abandoned it, and removed to, and effected a permanent settlement upon, the banks of the Huron river, near where now stands the flourishing town of *Milan*. In 1809, the colony again removed to Fairfield, Upper Canada, at which place their mission establishment still remains, and is flourishing.

As before remarked, the first landing for settlement purposes was in the autumn of 1796. The attention of Oliver Phelps, and several other enterprising citizens of Connecticut and Massachusetts, had some four years previous been directed to the advantages every where presenting themselves along the region of country known as the Connecticut Reserve, and sub-named *Fire Lands* and *Sufferers' Lands*. These lands embrace the tract of country in the State of Ohio bounded east by the west line of Pennsylvania, south by the completion of the 41st degree of north latitude, and west parallel with the west line of Pennsylvania, and one hundred and twenty statute miles west from it, extending north 42 deg. 2 min., which was excepted and reserved by the State of Connecticut in her deed of lands ceded to the United States. A map of more modern comprehensiveness of outline makes the boundaries thus: on Lake Erie,† north, and Pennsylvania, east. It extends 120 miles from east to west, and upon an average, 52 from north to south. The area is just 3,000,000 of acres. The subdivision, or *Fire Lands*, (500,000 acres in all, and located in the western portion of these reserve lands,) was a donation from the State of Connecticut to those of her citizens whose property had been destroyed by the incursions of the British against the towns of New London, Groton, Fairfield, and others, during the struggles of the Revolution. The 3,000,000 acres were offered for sale by the State of Connecticut, at Hartford, in 1795. Three distinct companies appeared as purchasers; but a compromise was effected between the agents of each, (Oliver Phelps, of Suffield, Conn., John Livingston, of Columbia county, New York, and William Hull, well known as afterwards Governor of Michigan,) by which the difficulties existing were removed, and two of the companies became the owners, with an understanding that the third (Hull's) should share in the advantages to be derived.*

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* Ziesberger gave the spot the name of "Pillgenah," i. e. *Pilgrim's Rest*.

† Lake Erie; by the French voyageurs, called "Conte;" by the savages, "Errie." Baron *Laboutan*, who treats of this sheet of water and of its shores, in a treatise bearing date in the last century, and whose observations were taken in 1788, thus remarks of the lake itself, and the peculiarities of its circum-adjacents: "The Lake Errie is justly dignified with the illustrious name of *Conte*; for assuredly it is the finest lake upon earth. . . You may judge of the goodness of the climate from the latitudes of the countries that surround it. * * * * Its circumference extends to two hundred and thirty leagues; but it affords everywhere such a charming prospect, that its banks are decked with oak trees, chestnut trees, apple and plum trees, and vines which bear their fine clusters up to the very tops of the trees—upon a sort of ground that lies as smooth as one's hand. . . I cannot express what vast quantities of deer and turkies are to be found in these woods, and in the vast meadows that lie upon the south side of the lake. . . At the bottom of the lake we find wild beeves (buffaloes) upon the banks of two pleasant rivers that disembogue into it without currents or cataracts. . . The savages assure us that it is never disturbed with high winds, but in the months of December, January, and February, and even then, but seldom; which, indeed, I am very apt to believe, for we had but very few storms when I entered into my fort, in 1688, though the fort lay open to the Lake of the Hurons. The banks of this lake (Erie) are commonly frequented by none but warriors, whether the Iroquese, the Illinese, the Oumanis, &c., and it is very dangerous to stop them." . . We elsewhere find that the *Errieronous*, (the Erie tribe,) and the *Audasto-quessomons*, (according to Bancroft, the *Audastes*,) dwelt upon the confines of the lake; but these, as well as other smaller tribes, were extirpated by the Iroquois

Early in the spring of 1796, the directors of the Connecticut Land Company resolved upon the survey of their purchase. These directors were Oliver Phelps, as aforenamed, Henry Champion, of Colchester, Samuel Mather, of Lyme, Gen. Newberry, of New Windsor, and Gideon Granger—all of Connecticut. They proceeded to select forty surveyors, under the immediate direction and inspection of SETH PEASE and AUGUSTUS PORTER, the former subsequently Assistant Postmaster General, and now deceased—the latter alive, and residing at, or near Niagara Falls. The agent of the Company accompanying the survey was MOSES CLEVELAND, from whom the queen city of Lake Erie derives its name. Among the surveyors were J. Milton Holley, of Salisbury, Connecticut, a brother of Myron Holley, since one of the Canal Commissioners of New York; Moses Warren, Amos Spafford, and Richard M. Stoddard. The surveying party proceeded to Schenectady in the month of June, 1796, where they remained until they collected the necessary compasses, chains, and other mathematical instruments for the traverse, and such stores as would be required for their journey and subsistence when arrived at and upon the theatre of their labours, and some two thousand dollars worth of dry goods, designed as presents to the Indians. For the transportation of these, the party procured four Schenectady batteaux,† and in these ascended the Mohawk river, passing over the portage at Little Falls to Fort Stanwix, (now Rome,) where there was another portage from the Mohawk to Wood Creek, which empties into Oneida Lake. They followed this stream to the lake, crossed the latter, and through its outlet and the Oswego river, and along the south shore of Lake Ontario to the mouth of the River Niagara; up that stream to Queenston, on the British side; crossed the seven miles portage, arriving at Chippewa; from thence following the Niagara to Buffalo, where they were to meet Gen. Cleveland and Mr. Porter. The journey that to our *modern* modus operandi is a self-sought pleasure excursion, was then a work of time, labour, and danger, and the expedition found it one of danger and death.‡

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* Hull's party was known at that time, and subsequently, as the "Excess Company," and was to have an interest in any lands over the 3,000,000 of acres, (the Fire Lands not included, of course.) This Company, soon after the purchase, divided their supposed interest into one hundred and twenty shares, for which they issued scrip: this was thrown into the market, and sold in some instances at a premium of three thousand dollars per share. The survey of the Reserve showed, however, a deficit of about 200,000, leaving the Connecticut Land Company but 2,800,000 acres, instead of over 3,000,000.

† These batteaux were of some eighteen barrels bulk, and usually manned with four hands. The arrival of these at Conneaut as a traditional term (is not an unwarranted) commencement of the navigation history of the great lakes of North America.

‡ While ascending Spraker's rift on the Mohawk, one member of the expedition lost his life. With a view to facilitate their progress, each of the boats had been furnished with a pole, serving as a mast, such pole having a fork at its top over which the halyard to hoist the sail was rove. On one of the boats, the halyard became

At Buffalo, (Messrs. Cleveland, Porter, and Holley, having joined the main body—the latter gentleman bringing some twelve or fourteen pack-horses, and ten or twelve head of cattle,) a "talk" was had with the Seneca and Mohawk tribes as to the relinquishment of their real or imaginary claims to the possession of the lands within the company's purchase. Red Jacket, Farmer's Brother, and other chiefs of the Senecas were present, as well as Col. Brant, (Thayandaencagua,) sachem of the Mohawks. The Senecas urged their claim pertinaciously for three or four days, but finally withdrew them on the delivery to them, by General Cleaveland, of about twelve hundred dollars worth of goods.

The expedition then started—the boats skirting the lake coast, while a large majority of the men progressed by land, driving before them the horses and cattle—and on the second day after quitting Buffalo arrived at Presque Isle, (now Erie,) where the boats lay wind-bound for several days. Again *en route*, the boats were sent up the bay to the narrowest part of the isthmus, unladen, and they and their cargoes transported by land across, and into the lake. Thence proceeding, the whole party arrived at (now) Conneaut, on the 4th of July, 1796.

The sons of revolutionary sires, some of them sharers of themselves in the great baptism of the republic, they made the anniversary of their country's freedom a day of ceromonial and rejoicing. They felt that they had arrived at the place of their labours, the—to many of them—sites of homes, as little alluring, almost as crowded with dangers, as were the levels of Jamestown or the rocks of Plymouth to the ancestors who had preceded them in the conquest of the seacoast wilderness of this continent. From old homes and friendly and social associations, they were almost as completely exiled as were the cavaliers who debarked upon the shores of Virginia, or the Puritans who sought the strand of Massachusetts. Far away as they were from the villages of their birth and boyhood; before them the trackless forest, or the untraversed lake, yet did they resolve to cast fatigue and privation and peril from their thoughts for the time being, and give to the day its due, to patriotism its awards. Mustering their numbers, they sat them down on the eastward shore of the stream now known as Conneant, and, dipping from the lake the liquor in which they pledged their country—their goblets some *tin cups* of no rare workmanship, yet every way answerable, with the ordnance accompaniment of two or three fowling pieces discharging, the required national salute—the first settlers of the Reserve spent their landing-day as became the sons of the Pilgrim Fathers—as the advance pioneers of a population that has since made the then wilderness of northern Ohio to "blossom as the rose," and prove the homes of a people as remarkable for integrity, industry,

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entangled; to remove the difficulty, one of the crew went up to re-arrange the halyard; but fell with his back across the gunwale, went overboard, and was drowned. By a stipulation in Jay's Treaty with the British Government, the western posts were in the early part of this year to be yielded to the United States. It was, therefore, supposed by Gen. Cleveland and his colleagues, that before the boats arrived before Oswego, that point would be evacuated by the troops of England, and in the possession of our own. But the attempt to pass was opposed by the British, (who were still garrisoned there,) and the boats were taken a short distance up the river until after nightfall, when they made a run by; but being caught by a sudden squall of wind, they were driven ashore a short distance below Oswego, and they and some of their loading much damaged.

love of country, moral truth and enlightened legislation as any to be found within the territorial limits of their ancestral New England.

The whole party numbered on this occasion fifty-two persons, of whom two were females, (Mrs. Stiles, and Mrs. Gunn, and a child.) As these individuals were the advance of after millions of population, their names become worthy of record, and are therefore given, viz: Moses Cleveland, Augustus Porter, Seth Pease, Moses Warren, Amos Spafford, Milton Hawley, Richard M. Stoddard, Joshua Stow, Theodore Shepard, Joseph Tinker, Joseph McIntyre, George Proudfoot, Francis Gay, Samuel Forbes, Elijah Gunn, wife and child, Amos Sawten, Stephen Benton, Amos Barber, Samuel Hungerford, William B. Hall, Samuel Davenport, Asa Mason, Amzi Atwater, Michael Coffin, Elisha Ayres, Thomas Harris, Norman Wilcox, Timothy Dunham, George Goodwin, Shadrach Benham, Samuel Agnew, Warham Shepard, David Beard, John Briant, Titus V. Munson, Joseph Landon, Job V. Stiles and wife, Charles Parker, Ezekiel Morley, Nathaniel Doan, Luke Hanchet, James Hasket, James Hamilton, Olney F. Rice, John Lock,* and four others whose names are not mentioned.

On the 5th of July, the workmen of the expedition were employed in the erection of a large, awkwardly constructed log building; locating it on the sandy beach on the east shore of the stream, and naming it "Stow Castle," after one of the party. This became the storehouse of the provisions, &c., and the dwelling-place of the families.

Pennsylvania had at that time so far ascertained her lake possessions, as to establish the boundary line between her territory and the lands vested in Connecticut. The western line of the former State arrived within three miles of the camping ground of the surveyors. Of the geographical character of the country west of this point, or, to have it still more definite, west of Presque Isle, (now Erie, Pa.,) nothing was known by the *Connecticut Land Company*, and of course by the surveying expedition, except such imperfect information as was drawn from a French map, of questionable accuracy and evident meagerness of detail; but professing to give the points at which the streams emptying into Lake Erie along its southern shore were to be found. The names of these tributaries were given in the order of their range from east to west, to wit: Conneaut, Ashtabula, Grand, Chagrin, Cuyahoga,† Rocky,‡ Black, Vermillion, and Huron rivers, and Sandusky bay.§ The principal surveyor, Mr. Porter, found the State land-mark of Pennsylvania to be about 3 minutes short of 42 degrees of north latitude.

After the completion of the stores-depot, and a day or two devoted to preparations for departure, the surveyors started. One division commenced at the junction of the Pennsylvania boundary with the lake coast, and measured south to the highlands north of the Mahoning river; while another, under the direction of Gen. Cleveland, coasted along the shore of the lake to the Cuyahoga river. (Other divisions accompanied the neighbouring survey, for the purpose as it progressed towards the 41st deg. of latitude—the southeast corner of the tract—to run off thence west on that parallel; at the end of each five miles to start a surveyor north to the lake: but with the operations of these parties, the writer does not propose to continue,—his aim alone being to bring the earlier facts to bear upon the arrival of the agents of the C. L. Co. at Cleveland. Suffice it under this head, that the surveys then made were afterwards in the main recognised as correct, and are the boundaries and subdivisions shown on the existing maps of Ohio.)

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* James Kingsbury joined shortly after, with his wife who gave birth to the first white child known to have been born on the Reserve. This infant died in consequence of want of nourishment. The mother was interred in the burial ground of this city about two years ago. The father, who has since held several important judicial and legislative trusts, is yet living in the township of Newburgh, about four miles distant from Cleveland, and was the first man who thrust a sickle in the first wheat field planted on the soil of the Reserve.

† *Cuyahoga*, i. e., *crooked* river.

‡ *Rocky*, by the Indians, *Copopa*.

§ This harbour, situated at the western extreme of the Reserve, is one of the most safely land-locked, to be met with on the traverse of the great lakes.

Gen. Cleveland, on arriving at the mouth of the Cuyahoga, entered the river, and followed its windings to where Tinker's Creek empties into the former, eleven miles south of Cleveland. The creek was so named, *Tinker*, the navigator of the party being the discoverer of its point of debouchure. The General then returned to Conneaut, and, while waiting for the return of the other exploring parties, held a council with a small tribe of Indians squatted several miles above the latter outlet of the stream and having made to them, through their chief, Pagua, some small presents, he effectively gained from them their friendship and respect for himself and his colleagues and followers.

While coasting the region of the Reserve, Mr. Cleveland unfortunately fell into the error that there was no stream worthy to be called such between Grand river and the Cuyahoga. The parties running the four first meridians having returned to Conneaut, Gen. Cleveland, Mr. Porter, Joshua Stow, Dr. Shepard, and four others, started again, to make a southwise exploration of the lake boundary of the company's possessions. They took with them one of the batteaux for the transport of provisions, &c. The first night after their departure they encamped on the west shore of Ashtabula river.* Proceeding westward they touched at the mouth of the Cuyahoga; thence to Sandusky bay, and returned to Cuyahoga river. Here they found Stiles, with his wife, and some ten others of the party, and commenced the survey of the town plot of what is now the city of Cleveland. By the first of October a log-cabin was erected. The city of Cleveland was outlined into two hundred and twenty lots of eight rods front, and forty rods rear; the whole encircling a public square of nearly ten acres (inclusive of two highways passing there-through.) On the 18th of October, the surveyors quitted Cleveland on their return route, leaving Stiles and his family and Capt. Paine, since of Cleveland, to weather out the winter in the *solitudes* of the new CITY. At this time, it may be as well to state, the settlements of whites between the western shore of the Genesee river and the Western Ocean were as oasis on Sahara. The garrison at Fort Niagara; two families at Lewiston; one at Schlosser, and a British Indian interpreter; two Indian traders at Buffalo, and, as near as we can gather, a family of New England origin; a few settlers at Presque Isle arrived there the previous year; Messrs. Kingsbury and Gunn with their wives at Conneaut; a French trader at Sandusky; the settlement at Detroit; and the far removed line of "Stockading" life on the north west bank of the Ohio river, made up the *civilizatiom* of what was then almost unknown to geography; of that which was long politically considered as the "North West Territory"—and which is now the governmental element of one-third of the republic.

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* Among other evidences of the *luxuries* to be obtained by a life on the border, we may as well mention that Joshua Stow, the commissary of the survey, while at Ashtabula river, growing tired of the salt supplies, discovered that the reptile life every where met with was *fresh*, and therefore supplied his table (?) with a daily *dish* of cooked rattlesnake! He declared them exquisite of flavour and right epicurean.

The winter of 1796–7, was one of privation to the few families remaining upon the Reserve, and the return of the surveyors on the ensuing spring was hailed as shipwrecked mariners greet the sail of the deliverer, or, the famine-stricken welcome the dispenser of bread. Without flour, salt, and the common provisions for the support of life, the long months of frost and storm had worn on slowly and cheerless; and the departure of the vast fields of ice that stretched away from the shore of the lake, and the coming of the spring time, the latter conveying assurances of the arrival of friends and supplies, were regarded by the settlers at Cleveland and Conneaut as ransom evidences—the ransom from a state of existence that had so far yielded nothing but peril and privation.

The surveying party, on reaching the Reserve again, made Cleveland their head-quarters. The families at Conneaut were removed to the same point, and the business preliminaries towards permanent settlement, were actively entered upon. Major Lorenzo Carter (a brave, eccentric, and thorough pioneer) and Ezekiel Hawley, with their families, all from Rutland, Vermont, also squatted within the circle. The latter constructed a cabin of logs on the immediate spot where the writer of these facts is now penning them; but the log shantee is gone, and in its place is a pile of brick buildings five stories in height, while from its windows may be seen in course of erection the most splendid structure in the West. And now, inasmuch as the history of Cleveland is closely identified with the rise and growth of the Western Reserve, and in fact of Ohio, we may as well present certain matters bearing upon the history of all. The Indian title to the reserve lands lying west of Cuyahoga river and *Portage Path* (as it was called) was extinguished by treaty on the 4th of July, 1805. Beyond the aforenamed river and path the red men still remained as sovereigns, retaining the rights and occupancy which they technically enjoyed under the provisions of Wayne's treaty of 1794. Over the territory of which the Cuyahoga was the eastern boundary, the system of Great Britain was the governing rule. The United States claimed and held sovereign political jurisdiction as a territory. Connecticut, also, maintained her rights to the same; but these clashing positions of the ruling influences interfered little or nothing in the operations towards settlement. In 1787, Congress passed the ordinance for governing the territory northwest of the Ohio; and Arthur St. Clair, the Governor thereof, established by proclamation, July 27th, 1788, the county of Washington, (seat of justice, Marietta.) The new county embraced nearly all the territory now composing Ohio, east of the Sciota, and south and east of the British possessions, and, among the rest, that part of the Reserve east of the Cuyahoga river and Portage Path. In 1797, the county of Jefferson was established, with Steubenville for its capital, the Reserve being comprised therein. After the relinquishment of the frontier posts by Great Britain, that portion of the northwest territory which lay north of Wayne's treaty line, and west of Cuyahoga was erected into a county called Wayne, (seat of justice, Detroit,) and embraced the northern part of the (now) States of Ohio and

Indiana, Michigan, Illinois, and Wisconsin Territory. The section of the Reserve lying west of Cuyahoga and Portage Path was within the jurisdiction of the county of Wayne, and so remained until July 10, 1800, at which time Trumbull county was established and embraced precisely the whole of the Connecticut Western Reserve. The town of Warren was made the county seat; county and quarter sessions courts were held in a space bounded by two *corn cribs;* and thither the citizens of the village of Cleveland resorted for legal remedies, &c. The conflicting claims of Connecticut and the United States were harmonized by Acts of the two powers, passed in the year 1800; in which Connecticut released to the United States full political jurisdiction, while the Government confirmed to the State ample title to the soil of the Reserve.

The little colony at Cleveland increased slowly during the first years of settlement. Five families wintered here in the year 1797–8. In 1798, the surveyors made a line of road, under brushed it, girdled the large timber, and bridged the small streams on the way from the Pennsylvania boundary to Cleveland. Before the close of the last century, colonies were in progress in Newburgh, Euclid, (Cuyahoga county;) Willoughby, Painesville, (Lake County;) Mentor, Burton, (Geauga county;) Harpersfield, Austinburg, Conneaut, Windsor, Morgan, (Ashtabula county;) Mesopotamia, Kinsman, Vernon, Hartford, Vienna, Coitsville, Poland, Boardman, Canfield, Liberty, Weathersfield, Warren, Youngstown, (Trumbull county;) Nelson, Mantua, Aurora, Ravenna, Rootstown, Atwater, Deerfield, (Portage county;) and Dudson, in the new county of Summit.

The disease seemingly consequent upon new settlements, sorely visited the pioneer population of the miniature city of Cleveland. Three of their number died of dysentery, in 1797; and the same disease, together with the ague, prostrated nearly all of the surveyors, and on their departure in the fall of this year, they were, to use the language of one of their number, "a sickly, sorry set of beings."

Up to 1799, the citizens subsisted on such bread stuffs as their ingenuity devised; but during that year a small grist mill was built at the falls of Mill Creek, some six miles southeast of the city, and during the ensuing winter the colony enjoyed the luxury of bread, the grain of which was ground by themselves, and converted into flour at their own mill.

The varied fortunes, privations, and progress of the founders of the infant town, were such during the ensuing score of years, as may be rehearsed by the *Columbus* of every similar 'location.' There was a reckless philosophy tempering the tempers, and governing the growth of the solitude into a city. The arrival of a settler was hailed with far more protestation and real pleasure than now marks the launching of a monster steamer, or the erection of a block of buildings. Like

"the hand
Of brother in a foreign land,"

the earlier immigrant met the new comers upon the tide ensuing; and the fellowship of voluntary exile was a bond as fervent, true, and extensive, as though demanded by the pandects, or sanctioned by the decalogue. In coming from New England, they brought with them into the forests of Ohio, New England feelings, affections, and laws; so that, separated from the substance of these agents of social life, they yet governed their actions by the spirit of the society from which they were sprung, and which they reverenced.

From 1800 to 1812, the populative receipts were few and far between: the town waxed not into importance, although the country stretching away from it, was rapidly filling up with a class of yeomanry of worth and industry; men who in themselves and their descendants have filled the trust offices of the third State of the Union, and shown themselves every way qualified to discharge them well, and wisely.

Cleveland, at the latter period stated, and even up to 1830, had not secured the favourable attention which it now so justly commands and receives. Even as late as 1825 it had a population of but five hundred souls; five years afterwards it had about doubled. In 1831, it was 1,100; in 1832, the population was 1,500; in 1833, 1,900; in January, 1834, it was found to have swelled to 3,323; in November of the same year it had increased to 4,250; in August, 1835, it was 5,080; in 1840, (including the township,) 7,137; and in January of present year, 1845, (connecting with it, as we very justly may, Ohio City, the business of which is chiefly transacted in Cleveland, to which it is linked by two bridges spanning the Cuyahoga,) the whole number of souls was 12,035; (exclusive of the township, which may be safely estimated at two thousand additional.) Of the political progress of the place it is unnecessary to say much. It was incorporated into a village by Act of the Legislature, passed December 23, 1814, and municipally governed by a board of Trustees, a President, and a Recorder. (Alfred Kelley, Esq., being its first President.) Previously, in 1805, the harbour was made a port of entry, and classed within the Erie District. In 1810, on the first of May of that year, Cleveland became the county seat of the county of Cuyahoga. On the 5th of June of the same year, the first court of Common Pleas was holden. In 1813, this point was made a depot of supplies and rendezvous for troops destined to cover places farther West. The court-house was erected in 1810. The first church was organized in 1816. The earliest appropriation by Government for the improvement of the harbour was made in 1825. In 1818, the first steamboat entered the mouth of the river. On the 4th of July, 1827, the first canal boat started from this termination of the gigantic improvement that links the Ohio and Mississippi rivers with the broad lakes of the northwest. On the third of March, 1836, the Legislature of Ohio elevated Cleveland into, a city, under the charter now governing it; and in 1845, the citizens have voted to loan two hundred thousand dollars for the construction (so far as it goes) of a railroad to terminate at Cincinnati.

The completion of the Ohio canal gave to Cleveland a prominence that at once attracted the favourable attention of eastern capitalists to this city, as a point of purchase for the great grain crop of Ohio, while southern and southwestern merchants, as well as the heavy merchandise dealers of the Atlantic cities, hailed it as the only available avenue of connexion for transportation purposes between the produce regions whence emanated the grain supply of millions of consumers, and the manufactures of Old and New England. Stretching as it does through the fairest and most fertile portions of the State, and the territory southwest, illimitable as to size almost, and rapidly peopling, the Grand canal at once entered upon wide-spread favour, and Cleveland, immediately upon its completion, became *the* City of the Lakes.

To show its importance, the following table is furnished, showing the arrivals and departures at Cleveland by it, as a medium since and for the year 1827:

Comparative Statement of Arrivals and Departures of Merchandise, Goods, &c., at Cleveland, by way of the Canal, in—

	1827.	1828.	1829.	1830.	1831.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.
ARRIVALS.									
Wheat,..........bushels,	....	....	....	176,689	288,100	288,722	386,760	333,868	387,232
Corn,.......... do.	....	....	....	....	....	....	74,193	2,653	53,373
Oats,.......... do.	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Flax seed,.......... do.	....	....	....	....	5,130	2,597	6,493	17,291	16,368
Mineral coal,.......... do.	800	5,021	*	5,100	8,409	12,900	49,136	96,634	50,473
Flour,..........barrels,	6,059	9,882	9,507	32,988	57,772	54,404	98,302	105,346	132,319
Pork,.......... do.	45	532	466	873	4,533	13 804	22,758	33,884	19,814
Beef,.......... do.	175	184	54	....	....	....	....	....	....
Whiskey,.......... do.	619	1,041	628	2,442	2,056	2,150	2,445	2,481	3,167
Linseed oil,.......... do.	15 tons.	276	338	802	1,339	146	233	6,120	316 casks.
Pot and pearl ashes,.......pounds,	26,680	82 casks.	*	232,960	476,418	261,026	175,847	65,895	81,133
Butter,.......... do.	112,000	1,607 kegs.	*	*	303,931	549,223	830,312	342,006	490,989
Cheese,.......... do.	62,720	951 casks.	*	*	97,930	85,711	54,123	26,812	20,860
Bacon,.......... do.	....	124 casks.	....	873 bbls.	....	....	....	....	....
Lard,.......... do.	....	86 kegs.	....	*	*	353,101	498,724	825,648	522,498
Pig iron,.......... do.	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	1,572,987	1,336,262
Iron and nails,.......... do.	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Wool,.......... do.	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Merchandise.......... do.	....	12,800	*	*	*	*	*	*	*
Tobacco,..........hogsheads,	102 tons.	42	....	....	435	969	1,192	2,331	3,652
Lumber and timber, ...feet,	4,200	34,226	151,745	....	289,728	656,949	808,345	1,037,514	1,881,113
Wood,..........cords,	125	45	339	*	*	*	*	*	*
CLEARANCES.									
Salt, ...barrels,	3,536	5,587	12,738	23,404	7,067	29,939	28,447	36,803	46,139
Lake fish,.......... do.	393	1,295	3,006	4,482	24,889	7,661	4,033	4,204	6,136
Merchandise,..........pounds,	521,920	1,151,300	1,426,880	3,279,360	5,039,524	5,260,535	9,896,444	10,127,613	13,708,483
Furniture,.......... do.	....	62,720	102,240	*	*	*	*	1,558,988	1,130,612
Gypsum,.......... do.	....	56,000	411,700	190,500	486,676	190,800	1,183,197	442,860	1,206,361
Castings,.......... do.	....	44,800	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Machinery,.......... do.	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Hides and skins,.......... do.	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Iron and nails,.......... do.	....			....	....	....	....	....	....
Agricultural implements, . do.	....	....	...	....	....	....	....	....	....
Grindstones,.......... do.	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....	....
Lumber,..........feet,	6,488	7,815	*	*	50,019	113,954	280,970	96,031	99,224
Shingles,..........M.,	127	359	633	*	1,078	780	615	987	2,365
Grindstones, ...pairs,	4	8	10	10	22	24	17	18	22

* This mark as made in the table explains that the Collector failed during the years so characterized to quote the amount of produce, &c., arriving and departing. Various reasons known to us exculpate the Collector from all charge of remissness; for a more correct officer never served the State of Ohio. While on the topic of canals, and to clear up all facts, as we pass on, it may be as well to state, that although in the above table the averages are given upon certain articles; many others are understood to have been received and receipted for at the terminus of the canals, that we have not specially enumerated; as, for instance, 78 tons in 1827—167 tons in 1828—653 tons 1829—1,015 perches of stone in 1831—429 do. in 1832—1,471 in 1833—5,052 in 1834—6,569 in 1835—6,816 in 1836—3,856 in 1837—441 in 1838—243 perches stone, and 778,931 staves, in 1839—634,954 staves in 1840—968,304 in 1841—1,709,623 staves, &c., in 1842—1,525,698 in 1843, and in 1844, over one million and a half! . . The immense increase of aggregation, as demonstrated in the foregoing table, shows the rapid strides of the Grand canal of Ohio at its Cleveland terminus, to justly deserved importance in the regards of eastern business men: for certainly, no artificial mode of conveyance has more speedily shot forward to permanent importance and revenue; to say nothing of its business advantages to New York and Boston on the one hand, and the Mississippi Valley on the other.

Comparative Statement of Arrivals and Departures of Merchandise, Goods, &c., at Cleveland, by way of the Canal, in—

	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.	1841.	1842.	1843.	1844.
ARRIVALS.									
Wheat,..................bushels,	464,750	548,697	1,228,521	1,520477	2,151,450	1,564,421	1,311,665	813,536	1,000,079
Corn,.................. do.	392,281	280,374	105,939	64,825	72,842	245,018	218,750	227,604	279,380
Oats,.................. do.	....	88,429	21,554	15,901	23,881	32,851	24,154	30,222	24,565
Flax seed,.................. do.	11,562	7,847	5,928	*	*	2,516	9,170	....	....
Mineral coal,.................. do.	84,924	184,646	71,330	140,042	167,045	478,370	466,844	387,834	560,942
Flour,..................barrels,	167,539	207,593	282,831	266,337	504,900	441,425	492,711	577,369	511,710
Pork,.................. do.	13,496	43,513	37,863	30,535	23,000	29,794	53,272	13,177	30,053
Beef,.................. do.	....	....	....	....	....	not given.	not given.	2,050	2,172
Whiskey,.................. do.	7,257	12,214	10,428	6,020	9,967	12,270	9,967	14,612	12 899
Linseed oil,.................. do.	336 casks.	130 casks.	82 casks.	24 casks.	86 casks.	332 casks.	557 casks.	1,104	2,086
Pot and pearl ashes,..........pounds,	34,829	102,220	68,955	*	*	100,111	584,851	1,082,733	1,339,604
Butter,.................. do.	900,419	773,642	585,108	119.727	782,033	1,463,220	1,115,056	1,008,387	1,206,935
Cheese,.................. do.	74,880	40,588	7,550	200	22,890	58,148	250,202	215,819	90,016
Bacon,.................. do.	*	2,812,761	1,541,780	1,316,273	683,499	1,881.271	1,267,245	1,920,066	1,722,628
Lard,.................. do.	636,409	1,555,536	1,139,183	869,805	513,452	961,161	1,311,185	1,649,835	1,546,365
Pig iron,.................. do.	1,031,568	1,017,847	1,006,784	768,300	1,154,641	968,160	1,924,286	2,891,551	2,163,840
Iron and nails,.................. do.	....	....	....	48,659	2,252,491	3,905,417	3,172,872	7,008,140	6,945,746
Wool,.................. do.	....	....	....	....	....	....	199,803	391,138	848,916
Merchandise,.................. do.	*	*	*	*	*	682,141	543,440	1,261,697	4,095,409
Tobacco,..................hogsheads.	3,851	1,445	357	327	932	942	1.263	1,789	339
Lumber and timber,..........feet,	1,235,180	757,814	64,368	*	*	328,991	313,949	*	*
Wood,..................cords,	*	*	*	3,070	2,809	1,789	2,990	4,487	5,350
CLEARANCES.									
Salt,..................barrels,	22,334	63,255	63,140	110,447	76,729	59,793	49.456	44.310	79,579
Lake fish,.................. do.	4,082	6,248	7,284	9,062	8,959	9,309	6,274	6,680	8,119
Merchandise,..................pounds,	13,394,081	8,868,887	17,018,114	17,455,703	9,563,396	15,227,709	10,091,803	12,822,725	11,843,265
Furniture,.................. do.	1,314,280	1,994,761	1,815,909	1,523.155	1,215.167	927,450	1,062,785	1,118,781	1,144,561
Gypsum,.................. do.	1,548,289	1,685,968	1,841,488	2,030,780	1,770.161	1,532,129	1,789,422	2,064.955	2,429.730
Castings,.................. do.	....	....	....	....	....	*	151,163	299.235	204,291
Machinery,.................. do.	....	....	....	....	....	*	*	91,918	77,331
Hides and skins,.................. do.	....	....	....	....	....	*	*	77,060	37 799
Iron and nails,.................. do.	....	....	....	....	*	3,844,420	*	144,269	159,716
Agricultural implements,... do.	....	....	....	*	....	*	*	9,558	37,954
Grindstones,.................. do.	....	....	...	....	*	*	*	72,871	23,869
Lumber,..................feet,	294,652	1,511,399	1,915,015	3,050,192	1,265,656	1,722,262	1,399.702	806.955	2,493,005
Shingles,..................M.,	1,351	2,637	3,352	3,216	2,560	2,568	2,394	3.139	3,251
Grindstones,..................pairs,	38½	25	46	30	21	37½	14½	16½	17½

But while the canal interest has given to Cleveland, as well as to the State of which it is by no means an unimportant member, great advantage and much prominence, yet it is from position on Lake Erie that the city has its chiefest merit. Seated on the southern shore of the lake, and on the eastern bank of the Cuyahoga, 196 miles distant by water from Buffalo, 130 miles northwest of Pittsburg, with which, as well as with Cincinnati, it has a regularly traversed water communication—with thousands of miles of internal seaboard stretching away from it to the remotest borders of the vast Northwestern Territory of the Union, Cleveland is, probably, when some influences of which we shall presently treat are brought to bear upon its progress, destined to be one of the *great* cities of the rapidly strengthening West. By lake and canal, New York, (Liverpool, if you will,) the American Birmington, New Orleans, St. Catharines by way of the Welland ship canal, and thence by Lake Ontario and the St. Lawrence to the Atlantic by a line of ship navigation, communicating daily with the young and already commanding cities, lining the shores of lakes, rivers, and canals in the States of Michigan, Illinois, Missouri, and the Territories of Iowa and Wisconsin—a common depository and a common centre for each and all of these, it can be seen at a glance at the map of the United States that Cleveland must advance and flourish with the growth and prosperity of the cities with which it is, as we have shown, either immediately or remotely allied.

Her early settlers glanced at once at the favourable nature of their maritime position, and, then not dreaming of canals and railroads, made the navigation of Lake Erie part of their first plans and pursuits. A sketch of the navigating history of the city will show how, from the feebleness of business infancy, the city waxed into gigantic commercial facilities within the short period of a few years.

The surveying party of the Connecticut Land Company (as we have shown) had for their *fleet* several Schenectady batteaux. At the time of their arrival at Cleveland there were two small schooners (it is just possible that there may have been one or two others, but of such we are not advised) called the "Mackinaw" and "Beaver," and belonging to Detroit —the patriarchal city of the northern internal seas.

In 1797, a small vessel of sixty tons was built at Four Mile Creek, (near Erie, Pa.,) and called the "Washington." In the spring of the ensuing year she was fitted out, and navigated this lake during that season, and was sold to a Canadian trader, and by him conveyed across the Portage to Queenston: She was ordered to Kingston, but was never heard of after leaving the mouth of the Niagara river. In the year 1800, another schooner was built at Erie, and named the "Harlequin." In October, of the same year, she also was lost, with some twenty souls on board.

The "Good Intent" sloop, of fifty tons, was also built at Erie during 1800, and navigated the lake until 1806, when she too was lost, off Point Ebono, with all hands, eight in number.

In 1801, the United States Government caused a brig of 150 tons to be built. She was called the "Adams,"* and constructed on the shore of the River Rouge, (which discharges into the Detroit a few miles below the city;) also, a schooner of 70 tons, named the "Tracy." These vessels were put in connexion with the United States army, as transports, mainly; they, however, sometimes received cargoes of merchandise, &c. The Tracy was sold in 1808, to Porter, Barton, & Co., of Black Rock, put in repair by them in 1809, and wrecked the same year on Bird Island Reef, at the entrance of the Niagara river.

In 1802, the "Wisconsin" schooner, of 80 tons, was built at Detroit: In 1810, sold to Porter, Barton, & Co., and by them named the "Amelia."†

In 1804, the "Contractor" sloop, of 50 tons, was built at Black Rock.

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* This vessel, was taken by the British, at Detroit, when Gen. Hull surrendered that place in 1812, and was afterwards cut out, together with the brig Caledonia, from under the guns of Fort Erie, by Capt. Jesse D. Elliot, of the United States Navy, in the fall of the same year. The Adams (called the Detroit by the English) was burnt, but the Caledonia was got safely off, and made one of Com. Perry's fleet. (See History of the War.)

† Subsequently, in 1812, sold to Government, but not put in commission, because declared not seaworthy. Her remains are now lying in the harbour of Erie.

In 1812, she was sold to the United States, christened the "Trip," and made one of Com. Perry's squadron.

The schooner "Cuyahoga Packet," of 20 tons, was built at Chagrin this same year. This was the first vessel constructed on the Reserve, and was "*basket fashion*" in hull; i. e. having the keel and kelson in one piece of timber, by morticing through it, and inserting the floor timbers through the mortice holes—then following out the usual mode of putting a vessel in frame, trimming the timbers up at the sides. At the capture of Malden, in 1812, she was taken *with all Gen. Hull's papers on board.*

The "Lark," sloop of 30 tons, was, also, built the same year, at Grand River in Canada. She navigated the southern shore of Lake Erie until 1812, when she was captured by the British.

In 1806, in pursuance of an order from the War Department, a sloop of sixty tons was built at the mouth of Cayuga creek, a stream emptying into the Niagara river a few miles above Schlosser. The object of her construction was to transport Indian goods from Fort Niagara to Fort Wayne, on the head waters of the Maumee. She was placed under the command of Capt. Daniel Dobbins, one of the first and best navigators of Lake Erie, and still residing at Erie, Pa.; and after making the passage of the Niagara, was by Capt. D. surrendered to Lieut. Dorr, U. S. A., who took her as far as *Detroit*. Government believing the execution of their earlier intention impracticable, the sloop was sold to Porter, Barton, & Co. Of her after history we know nothing.

The schooner "May," of 120 tons, was launched in 1807: in July, 1812, she was captured by the British, when the island of Mackinaw was taken by them—sent down to Detroit as a cartel, and again taken when Gen. Hull surrendered that city. She was subsequently burnt in the River Thames by the British, on the approach of Gen. Harrison's army, October, 1813.

The "Ranger," schooner of 50 tons, was built on the River St. Clair, in 1806.

In 1809, the schooner "Catharine," of 80 tons, was launched at Black Rock, or a few miles below there on the Niagara. In 1812, she was sold to the United States, called the "Somers," and made one of Commodore Perry's fleet in 1813.*

In 1809, R. S. Reed and Capt. D. Dobbins purchased the schooner "Charlotte," of 90 tons burthen, and naming her the "Salina," sailed her until 1812, when, being at Mackinaw, the vessel shared the fate of the Mary—was also taken to Detroit as a cartel, and by Hull included in the general surrender made by him to the British—being subsequently used by the enemy as a transport vessel from various points on the lake to Malden. She was finally frozen up in the ice of the ensuing winter near the *West Sister Island;* abandoned by her crew; drifted down, ice-locked, until opposite Erie, where she was discovered, (some twenty miles from shore,) visited, some $200 worth of property taken from her, and then fired to the water's edge.

In 1810, Messrs. Murrey & Bigsby built at Cleveland the schooner Ohio, of 60 tons. She was commanded by Capt. John Austin. She was sold to the United States in 1812. Her fate was that of the Somers.

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* She was afterwards cut out from Fort Erie, together with the schr. Ohio, by the enemy, in the summer of 1814.

In 1808, Maj. Carter built the shooner Zephyr at Cleveland, (tonnage not known.) She was burnt at Canjaquata's creek by the British in 1812 or '13.

Above is, we believe, a tolerably fair, if not altogether an accurate account of the rise and progress of American navigation upon Lake Erie up to the last war with Great Britain.*

Previous to the war, the principal business on these lakes was the transportation of salt and furs. In 1811, one hundred and twenty thousand dollars worth of the latter were taken by Capt. Dobbins in the schooner Salina from Mackinaw; this too at the Mackinaw valuation, and during the operation of the non-intercourse law. 18,000 barrels destined for the Pittsburg market arrived at Erie in a single season. Flour, pork, whiskey, high wines, intended for the Indian trade and the markets of Detroit and Mackinaw, came from Pittsburg, and served as an offset to the fur trade of the former. From 1796 to 1802, what few emigrants and merchandise found their way into Ohio from the Atlantic settlements were conveyed hither mostly by Schenectady boats, following the route of the original surveys. From the year 1802 to 1812, goods were brought from Albany to Black Rock by wagons; the merchants starting to New York in July: then goods were frequently detained on the way until the spring of the ensuing year.

In the running narrative that we have given of the growth of our lake commerce, it will be seen that shipwreck, danger, death, and ruin, almost in all cases, attended the first enterprises of our navigators. But these disasters only served to re-enliven their determination, and prompt to more widely directed enterprise. When the peace of 1814 was declared, the infant commerce of Cleveland and of the other towns of Lake Erie was utterly valueless, as utterly prostrate. Their proximity to the enemy, and the isolation of their shipping, had made them the easily-found prey of the enemy.

On the termination of hostilities, the line of settlements extensively spread along the chain of the lakes from Buffalo to Chicago. The country adjacent to their shores became the homes of numerous bands of emigrants. Commerce and navigation became the consequences of this state of things. The products of the soil were yearly becoming of greater value as exports eastwise. The manufactures of New England and the fabrics of Europe began to find wide and safe markets in the erewhile solitudes and wilderness of the far west; and, almost as by enchantment, the sail and the steamer ploughed the waves of the inland oceans with nearly as much rapidity, fidelity, and periodical regularity, as they breasted the billows of Long Island Sound, or the waters of Massachusetts Bay.

It is to be much regretted that in consequence of the destruction of the custom-house papers by fire, in the winter of 1842–3, we are without the correct data necessary to prepare a table of the growth of our lake tonnage, the extent of our trade, both foreign and domestic, and the number of arrivals and departures from the revival of this interest after the war. In the absence of the documents, we can only give imperfect memoranda—gathered industriously, but sadly deficient, nevertheless.

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* We do not wish to be understood as maintaining that this was all the maritime traverse of Lake Erie. As early as 1796, Great Britain had two armed brigs of 200 tons each, the Chippewa and Ottawa; the schooner Nancy of 90 tons, the sloop Hunter of 50 tons, the schooner Charlotte of 90 tons, and several smaller vessels, all merchantmen. In 1804, the armed brig Hunter of 60 tons, (taken by Perry)—1806, the armed brig Camden of 250 tons was launched, (broken up at Malden early in the war.) In 1807, the armed schooner Hope of 80 tons, (lost on Lake Huron in 1809.) In 1809, the armed ship Queen Charlotte, captured by Perry, (now navigating the lakes.) In 1810, the armed schooner Lady Provost of 100 tons, (also captured by Perry.) These vessels were employed to transport troops, Indian goods, &c.

The port of Cuyahoga was any thing but a safe entrance way for vessels, even as late as 1828. Government, as we have elsewhere stated, had appropriated the sum of five thousand dollars for the improvement of this harbour; but it was evident, after this money was expended, that it was a fruitless operation. Vainly for a long time did the application of our citizens rest upon the tables of Congress. The members generally knew little or nothing of the towns along the great lakes, and cared less. While millions were being spent along the sea-board; especially the southern line of the coast, the outlay of a few thousands for securing the growing navigation of this region. But what was denied to justice, was tardily granted to the unwearied demands of our people. At the instance of the citizens of Cleveland, A. W. Walworth, Esq., proceeded to Washington, and claimed a hearing of the Committee on Commerce. This was a move without precedent; but happily it prevailed. The committee granted him the desired hearing. Mr. W. could say nothing calculated to impress Congress with even a tolerable opinion of the city and harbour, ignorant of it as they had been and still were. The five thousand dollars expended had effected nothing; the city was only such in name; the commerce feeble and inefficient, marked thus far with disaster, for several vessels had been wrecked in attempting to make a harbour in the Cuyahoga.* But Mr. W. had a correct idea of what an artificial harbour would do for the future prosperity of Cleveland, and his statements to the committee were to the effect of leading them to report an appropriation of ten thousand dollars; an amount at that time deemed sufficient for the completion of the work. Despite the incredulity of the citizens and sailors, the government officer (Major Maurice) steadily prosecuted his plan, and in the latter part of October, 1827, his work was crowned with success. Further improvements have been since made, and Cleveland has now one of the finest and safest harbours to be met with on Lake Erie; the whole cost being in the neighbourhood of $145,000—$25,000 of which was appropriated at the last session, and is now in course of disbursement. From about 1830, then, commences the lake-business history of this port. In that year a light-house was built upon the highland overlooking the lake; a solid pile; its light one hundred and thirty-five feet above the level of the water. Up to this time the tonnage registered here was very inconsiderable. In 1816, (July,) it stood as follows:

Whole number of vessels enrolled, ...	7		
" amount of tonnage of vessels enrolled, ...		430 tons	54 lbs.
" number of vessels registered, ...	4		
" amount of tonnage of vessels registered, ...		154 "	94 "
Total tonnage, ...		585 "	48 "

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* The "Washington," the "American Eagle," and the "Erie," were stranded in sight of the proposed harbour, and thirty thousand dollars worth of property destroyed. These results of the absence of the desired improvement were brought to bear against the further appropriation; instead of exemplifying the absolute necessity of such an outlay,

In 1830:

Whole number of vessels,……………………18		
" " of steamboats, (Enterprise,)…… 1—19		
" tonnage of vessels,……………………	1,108 tons	18 lbs.
" " of steamboats,………………	219 "	00 "
Total tonnage,……………………	1,327 "	18 "

In 1830:

Number of entries of vessels, (not including steamboats,)…………327

" " of steamboats,……………………………………448

Statement showing the number of Vessels and Steamboats belonging to the Port of Cleveland, their Tonnage, and the number of Arrivals and Departures from the year 1831 *to* 1844, *inclusive.*

BELONGING TO THE PORT OF CLEVELAND.

Years.	Steamboats.	Schooners.	Sloops.	Brigs.	Arrivals of vessels exclusive of steamboats.	Departures of vessels exclusive of steamboats.	Years.	Steamboats.	Schooners.	Sloops.	Brigs.	Arrivals of vessels, exclusive of steamboats.	Departures of vessels, exclusive of steamboats.	Tonnage.
1831,…………	1	12	2	..	355	350	1838,…………	11	48	3	2	1,054	1,050	..
1832,…………	1	14	4	..	497	498	1839,…………	11	50	3	2	1,024	1,029	..
1833,…………	1	21	5	..	794	790	1840,…………	7	49	3	2	1,344	1,344	9.504
1834,…………	1	22	4	..	838	835	1841,…………	7	54	2	4	1,364	1,366	..
1835,…………	3	27	5	1	878	870	1842,…………	5	67	2	6	1,418	1,412	8,761
1836,…………	4	29	5	2	920	921	1843,…………	4	74	3	5	1,382	1,433	9,386
1837,…………	7	31	6	2	950	951	1844,…………	3	81	2	12	1,561	1,567	11,738

List of the principal Articles Imported and Exported at the Port of Cleveland, during the year 1844, *inclusive, with their value.*

IMPORTS, COASTWISE.

	Dolls.	cts.		Dolls.	cts.
127,296 barrels salt,………	157,479	68	156 casks ashes, (P. & P.)….	312	00
2,660,000 feet lumber,……	26,600	00	106 tons marble,………0…	4,770	00
2,849M shingles,………	7,177	50	1,128 pieces marble,…………	6,768	00
9,599 barrels fish, ……	67,193	00	1,929 burr blocks,…………	2,652	00
5,285 tons merchandise, 62,008 packages do.	4,799,804	00	29 tons burr blocks, ……	2,900	00
			88 sacks wool,…………	3,520	00
951 tons plaster,………	5,706	00	1,477 barrels waste lime,……	3,488	00
594,959 pounds iron,………	35,798	36	41,483 pounds rags,…………	1,037	00
108,482 pounds castings,…	4,339	28	12,735 sides leather,……………	38,205	00
4,282 packages furniture,.	184,126	00	28 wagons and carriages,….	2,800	00
876 casks seeds,………	7,884	00	946 stoves,……… ……	9,460	00
470 cords limestone,…,	2,350	00	2 tons hollow ware,……	140	00
332 cords wood,………	415	00	174 casks of oil,…………	6,090	00
50,504 bushels wheat,…..	37,878	00	5,416 sheep pelts,…………	3,385	00
7,333 bushels oats, ……	1,319	10	1,279 barrels flour,…………	4,796	00
814 barrels pork, ……	5,698	00	253 casks liquor and wine,…	25,300	00
7,836 cedar posts, ………	979	50	2,806 kegs nails,……………	16,836	00
1,538 kegs white lead,…	6,152	00	10,460 hoop poles,…………	104	60
210 boxes clocks,……	5,250	00	2 mill stones, …………	100	00

IMPORTS FROM CANADA.

	Dolls.	cts.		Dolls	cts.
1,217,462 feet lumber,………	6,746	49	3 casks wine,………………	217	00
150M. shingles,…………	150	00	91 gallons brandy,……… ….	169	40
522 cords shingle bolts,…	1,566	00	104 toises stone, ……………	274	62
436 tons plaster,………	1,038	00	30 spars,…………………	165	00
4,194 bushels coarse salt,….	838	00	250 cedar posts,………………	20	00
4 cases gin,…………	107	00	84 barrels fish,……… ……	420	00
21 articles merchandise,.	52	00	217 boxes mineral water,………	23	37
54 articles furniture,……	112	00	Miscellaneous,……………	140	00

EXPORTS, COASTWISE.

		Dolls.	cts.			Dolls.	cts.
440,518	barrels flour,.......	1,651,940	50	572,115	pounds cheese,......	28,605	00
26,081	" pork,.......	182,567	00	870,794	" bacon,.......	34,831	00
10,602	" salt,........	11,450	00	9,594	" fur,.........	19,152	00
10,660	" whiskey,....	82,615	00	744	tons grindstones,....	8,928	00
5,443	" seeds,......	48,987	00	2,779	" iron,...........	222,320	00
1,935	" tallow,.....	29,025	00	16,613	" coal,...........	49,839	00
119	" beans,......	238	00	857	" merchandise,.	1,044,670	00
4,332	" fruit,.......	8,864	00	16,215	packages do. ..		
2,227	" oil,.	55,675	00	1,656M.	staves,.............	23,120	00
436	" fish,........	3,052	00	278M.	lumber,............	1,529	00
765,777	bushels wheat,......	577,182	75	6,609	sacks wool,.........	264,360	00
142,540	" corn,........	51,314	40	821	" feathers,.......	14,778	00
11,726	" oats,........	2,110	68	13,680	boxes glass,.........	20,520	00
11,774	kegs lard,.........	35,322	00	451	" candles,.......	1,353	00
15,165	" butter,........	60,660	00	756	" saleratus,......	1,890	00
9,535	" nails,..........	47,675	00	491	" soap,..........	2,445	00
4,849	casks ashes,.........	96,980	00	3,994	" starch,........	7,988	00
10,373	" beef,..........	51,865	00	363	" tobacco,.......	4,356	00
398	hogsheads tobacco,.	47,760	00	40	pair millstones,....	6,400	00
47,869	galls. stone hollow ware,	3,509	00	57,919	hides and sheep pelts,	52,325	00
3,130	live hogs,..........	16,780	00	1,130	rolls leather,..... ..	56,500	00

EXPORTS TO CANADA.

		Dolls.	cts.			Dolls.	cts.
80,371	barrels flour,.........	301,391	00	58,716	pounds bacon,..........	2,348	64
12,457	" pork,........	87,199	00	38,445	" cheese,..........	1,922	25
407	" tallow,.......	6,105	00	325	packages merchandise,..	12,350	00
323	" salt,.........	348	84	180	kegs lard,..............	540	00
78	" oil,..........	1,950	00	4	" tobacco,...........	48	00
40	" fruit,.........	80	00	25,500	feet black walnut timber,.	382	50
18	" lime and beef,.	42	00	259	dozen brooms,..........	368	50
175,446	bushels wheat,.......	131,584	50	72	boxes saleratus,.........	180	00
63,247	" corn,.........	22,768	92	9	" starch,...........	18	00
44½	tons grindstones,.....	534	00	72½	tons hemp,.............	5,800	00
1,240	" coal,...........	3,720	00	60	cedar posts,............	9	60

Total value of imports, coastwise,.........................$5,670,622 56
" " " from Canada,.... .... 12,043 13
Total value of exports, coastwise,.... .... 4,933,326 52
" " " to Canada,........................ 579,711 00

Amount of products, &c., shipped at and for this port in 1844,.$11,195,703 21

Whole number of vessels arrived in 1844,....................1,561
" " steamboats arrived in 1844,.................1,200—2,761
" " vessels departed in 1844,...................1,567
" " steamboats departed in 1844,................1,200—2,767
" " vessels entered from Canada in 1844,........ 224
" " " cleared for Canada in 1844........... 226— 450

From the foregoing statements, it may be seen that already Cleveland wields a potent wand over the watery empire ranging away from its shores. To the cockney, whose *readings* teach him that the great west is yet in business swaddling clothes, the accompanying list of steamers tracking the lakes and enriching the infant cities on their margin, may be productive of surprise. Others, too—lawmakers, who steadily oppose all lake harbour improvements, and shut their senses against the demands of this region to the fostering care of government, can glean something, possibly, that will induce them to regard the rights of the "lakes" with some disposition to do us justice.

NAMES OF STEAMERS, THEIR TONNAGE, &c., ON THE WESTERN LAKES.

NAME.	Tons.	When built.	NAME.	Tons.	When built.	NAME.	Tons.	When built.
Walk in the Water,	340	1818	Jackson,	50	1834	Lexington,	362	1838
Superior,	300	1822	J. Downing,	80	“	Fairport,	250	“
Chippewa,	100	1824	Little Western,	60	“	Red Jacket,	148	“
Henry Clay,	348	1825	Fulton,	388	1835	J. Allen,	250	“
Pioneer,	230	“	Columbus,	391	“	Washington, (2d).	396	“
Niagara,	180	1826	Townsend,	312	“	Dole,	162	“
William Penn,	275	“	United States,	366	“	Gen. Scott,	240	1839
Enterprise,	250	“	Chicago,	180	“	Chautauque,	161	“
Peacock,	120	1829	Taylor,	95	“	Brothers,	150	“
Newburyport,	75	“	Thames,	160	“	Kent,	186	“
Thompson,	242	1830	Clinton,	433	1836	Huron,	149	“
Ohio,	187	“	Julia Palmer,	300	“	Missouri,	619	1840
Adelaide,	230	“	L. Erie,	140	“	Harrison, (2d)	396	“
Gratiot,	63	1831	Barcelona,	102	“	Minos,	400	“
Pennsylvania,	395	1832	St. Clair,	250	“	Indiana,	534	1841
New York,	325	“	Don Quixotte,	80	“	Franklin,	281	1842
Brady,	100	“	Cincinnati,	116	“	Nile,	600	1843
Uncle Sam,	280	“	Illinois,	755	1837	Empire,	1140	1844
Perseverance,	50	“	Rochester,	482	“	Superior, (2d)	*	“
Washington, (1st)	609	1833	Madison,	630	“	New Orleans,	*	“
Michigan,	472	“	Cleveland,	580	“	Troy,	*	“
Webster,	358	“	Wisconsin,	700	“	Helen Strong,	*	“
Detroit,	240	“	Erie,	497	“	Oregon,	*	“
Marcy,	161	“	Constellation,	483	“	Phœnix, (prop'l'r)	*	“
North America,	362	“	Bunker Hill,	457	“	Oregon, “	*	“
Newberry,	170	“	Constitution,	414	“	New York, “	*	“
Delaware,	170	“	New England,	416	“	Syracuse, “	*	“
Victory,	77	1834	Milwaukie,	401	“	Oswego, “	*	“
Porter,	342	“	Wayne,	300	“	Racine, (propell'r)	*	“
Jefferson,	428	“	Macomb,	101	“	Independence, “	*	“
Perry,	352	“	Star,	128	“	Princeton, “	*	“
Monroe,	344	“	Great Western,	780	1838	Hercules, “	*	“
Mazeppa,	130	“	Buffalo,	613	“	Sampson, “	*	“
Sandusky,	377	“	Chesapeake,	412	“	Vaandalia, “	*	“
Minesettunk,	250	“	Vermillion,	385	“	Michigan, (iron)	*	“

These, with several others not of tonnage sufficiently large to merit classification here, to wit, the Pentanguishene, Cynthia, Pontiac, and Phenomenon, of which but little is known—nothing of their capabilities; the United of 27 tons, the Crockett of 18, the Commerce of 80, the Mason of 53, the Vance of 75, the Marshall of 51, the Owashenank of 45, the Patronage of 56, the Harrison of 63, the Waterloo of 98, the Union of 64, and the Caroline of 46 tons, making in all over thirty three thousand as the aggregate of tons of this class of sea craft; costing (at the rate of one hundred and thirty dollars per ton, the generally recognised cost of fitting out such vessels) the handsome sum of *four million two hundred and ninety thousand dollars.*

Some of these have of course shared the usual lot of these traversers of the deep; others have been laid up to rot, while their places have been

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[*] We have no immediate data at hand whereby to state the tonnage of the five last named steamers. Their aggregate cannot be less than thirty-five hundred tons. The propellers will average from 275 to 325 tons each. The Michigan is a revenue vessel. Several magnificent steamers are in process of construction at different points on the lakes—one now on the stocks in this port. The CLEVELAND, the pride of the western seas, passed by in October, on her way to Chicago, with one thousand passengers on board. She was built at, and belongs to this port.

supplied with floating palaces better suiting the demands of the times, and the tastes of the traveller; but through the piers *curbing* the harbour of Cleveland these vessels (the majority) hourly stretch, either bringing to us, or bearing beyond, the fabrics, the products, or the population of the old world and the new.

Even as early as 1841, (the season of our greatest business depression,) the Committee on Commerce thus reported to Congress at the session of 1842-3: "It appears that in 1841 there were upon Lake Erie and the upper lakes more than fifty steamers, constructed at a cost of between two and three millions of dollars—and among them some (varying from six to eight hundred tons) which for strength, sea-worthiness, beauty of model, and elegance of finish, may compare advantageously with any in America; and notwithstanding the pecuniary pressure of that year, the earnings during the season of navigation, and after accomplishing voyages, amounting collectively, by estimation, to near 450,000 miles, were $767,132."

And again, in speaking of the capital invested in said vessels, the same committee add: "During the same year (1841) the probable amount of capital invested in *sail vessels*, on the same lakes, was estimated at $1,250,000, and *their* earnings during the same season are estimated at $750,000. If to these earnings there are to be added $150,000 for freight and toll upon United States products, passed during the same year through the Welland Canal, it will be seen that the product of the navigation and commercial business upon these lakes amounts annually to the large sum of $1,700,000: while at the same time, it has been productive of the vast advantage of furnishing employment and support to great numbers of sailors, and others, connected, of necessity, with the business."

Col. Abert, the very able chief of the Topographical Bureau, every way a fair and impartial judge, thus treats of the commerce of Cleveland and the Lakes: "It further appears," he remarks in one of his reports, "that during the year 1840, the number of entries and departures of vessels and steamers at Buffalo was 4,061; that during the same year the number was equally great at Cleveland, and that of the two millions of bushels of wheat shipped, 896,550 bushels were cleared from that port for Canada or the Welland canal; and that there were, during the same period, and from the same place, 422 clearances of vessels for Canada or the Welland canal. It further, by those documents, appears that dutiable merchandise from New York or elsewhere, to the value of ten millions of dollars, was discharged at Cleveland, and destined for the Ohio and Mississippi valleys, passing down the Ohio canal, and for consumption and supply in the state of Ohio.

"The rapidity with which the navigation and commerce of the lakes has thus grown up, constitutes a striking feature in the general subject. With that is connected a consideration of the influence produced upon those interests by the completion of the great lines of communication between the Hudson and Buffalo, by canal and railway; and between the Ohio river, at the mouth of the Scioto and Lake Erie, at Cleveland, through the Ohio canal. This influence is ably and sufficiently illustrated in the different expositions contained in the reports of the Topographical Bureau. And, if consequences so vast may justly be deduced from the opening of those lines of communication, who can measure the extent of that teeming commerce which will be poured into Lake Michigan, through the canal up the Illinois, and how immeasurably will that commerce be swollen and expanded by the completion, now so nearly accomplished, of the Ohio and Indiana canal, of the Miami and Wabash, which terminates in the Miami bay, and of that canal which is to unite Pittsburg with the lakes at Erie, and of all those other lines of communication by railroad which are respectively in a course of completion?

"Of the actual condition of the commerce of the lakes, some adequate conception it is believed can be formed. The Secretary of War estimates its actual value at a sum exceeding twenty-five millions of dollars."

The reader will pardon us for thus going "behind the papers," to an extent, it may be, unwarranted, but *we* do not see how a fair history of Cleveland may given, without examining into the rise and progress of all the elements that have made Cleveland what she is—the type of her future greatness. With the lakes and Welland and Erie canals on the one hand, and her own grand canal on the other, Cleveland is the heart of a vast and almost interminable line of navigable facilities; and all that she now wants is one or more railroads. Of this we shall treat in conclusion.

While thus successfully stretching the wings of her enterprise over the waters of the lakes and the valleys of the West, the city has been the busy focus of local improvement and gain in the useful arts of life. Emerging from the disastrous overthrow, that commencing in 1837 made a business paralysis of the years ensuing up to and including 1841, (a season of prostration no where more severely felt than in the cities of this region,) the citizens of Cleveland took at once to the permanent refitment of their standard resources; and, grown wiser as the result of their share in the national calamity, their after labours have ever since been cautiously and prudently directed, and consequently successful. As evidence of this, we furnish an abstract of the business condition of the city in July last, measurably imperfect, as our data has been chiefly derived from a faulty directory. Such as it is, it gives a favourable "map of busy life" in the properly denominated QUEEN CITY OF THE LAKES.

Number of families,	2,112
Number of dwelling-houses occupied,	1,710
Number of males under 21,	2,839
" " over 21,	3,375
" of females under 21,	2,976
" " over 21,	3,016
Total amount of population,	12,206
Number of dwelling-houses in process of erection,	406
Number of other buildings occupied,	180
Number of other buildings in progress of erection,	25
Number of congregations, viz: 3 Presbyterian, 2 Episcopalians, 1 Baptist, 2 Methodist, 1 Methodist Weslcyan, 1 Associate Presbyterian, 1 Roman Catholic, 1 Bethel, 1 German Evangelical Protestant, 1 Evangelical Lutheran, 1 Evangelical Association of N. A., 2 Israelitish, 1 Second Advent, 1 Universalist.	19
Number of clergymen,	19
Number of teachers in schools,	

Number of scholars in day and Sabbath schools,	
Public buildings, Court-House, Jail, Market-House, Medical College, Marine Hospital.	5
County officers, &c.,	15
Judges,	2
Lawyers,	60
Justices of the peace,	4
Notaries public,	25
Physicians,	29
Forwarding and commissson merchants,	57
Auctioneers,	3
Societies of Odd Fellows,	2
Societies of Masons,	1
Temperance Associations,	5
Other Associations,	4
City Bank of Cleveland, capital 50,000 dollars.	1
Mechanics' Bank—capital $100,000,	1
Insurance companies and agencies,	20
Exchange brokers and private banks,	8
Printing offices—employing 33 hands,	8
Book binderies— " 9 "	2
Engine companies, &c.,	6

Members of engine cos. in service,	278	Chair makers—employing 11 hands,	3
Dentists,	4	Drapers and tailors— " 280 "	25
Merchants, grocers, and other dealers,	47	Saddlers— " 32 "	7
Hardware dealers,	8	Bakers and confectioners— 47 "	10
Crockery "	2	Shoe makers— " 128 "	20
Leather "	4	Hatters— " 53 "	5
Dealers in drugs,	7	Tobacconists— " 40 "	5
Jewellers,	5	Butchers— " 60 "	13
Lumber and coal yards,	8	Locksmiths,	2
Stone and marble yards,	3	Silver and brass plater,	1
Cooperages,	5	Astronomical machine maker,	1
Breweries and distilleries,	4	Engravers,	2
Iron foundries,	6	Livery stables,	3
Lard oil and linseed factories,	5	Milliners,	18
Saleratus factories,	2	Mantua makers,	82
Painters—employing 27 hands,	19	Grocery stores,	127
Carpenters—master builders, employing 350 hands.	29	Dry goods stores,	53
		Clerks,	210
Master masons— " 125 "	11	Labourers,	527
Cabinet makers— " 63 "	19	Teamsters,	47
Carriage makers— " 50 "	5	Sailors,	700

In some of the quotations we have embraced the classes of Ohio City; they necessarily being part of the business industry of Cleveland.

The foregoing is not intended to exhibit Cleveland, except as a bare outline. Hundreds of thousands of dollars are invested profitably in other branches of trade and mechanics. The money of our capitalists is being lavishly expended in ornamenting and perfecting the place. One of these, himself, is constructing a magnificent edifice, designed for a hotel, that, when completed, will be the most elegant "traveller's rest" west of New York. Another building, designed for a similar purpose, has recently been opened, and next spring will find another perfectly complete—the two last worthy of the enterprise of their owners.

Travellers visiting our city are struck with the beauty with which art and no less lavish nature have endowed us. The venerable John Quincy Adams, during his western journey of two years or more, ago, expressed most warmly his admiration; and in truth, so do all. The carefully painted buildings, embowered in foliage, admit so much of their outline of pure white to be seen, as varies the snow-like hue of the one, to the stainless green of the other; and the writer has heard declarations of surprised pleasure burst from the lips of the sons of New Haven and Hartford, as some long line of highway revealed artistic, and natural beauties beyond the justly celebrated scenic haunts and residences of the towns we have named.

No unimportant benefit accrues to the city from the fertility and vastness of the country contiguous to, and of which it is the emporium. The counties of the Western Reserve find here their market, their centre, outlet, and, in the main, the depository of their strength as a producing district. They are identified with her growth, and their agricultural exhibit is a link in the chain of Cleveland's resources. With a view to show the great productive and business influences bearing upon these, and at the same time upon Cleveland, we have taken from the census returns of 1840, the reported condition of the Reserve counties, in several of the many sources of their revenue. We do not claim for it entire accuracy; for we are satisfied it falls far below the actual standard at the time.

CENSUS OF THE WESTERN RESERVE COUNTIES IN 1840.

	Number of men employed in Agriculture	Number of men employed in Commerce	Men employed in Manufactures and Trades	Men employed in Navigation	Horses and Mules	Neat Cattle	Sheep and Swine	Value of Poultry	Number of bushels of Wheat	Number of bushels of Oats	Number of bushels of Rye	Number of bushels of Buckwheat	Number of bushels of Indian Corn	Pounds of Wool	Number of bushels of Potatoes	Number of pounds of Sugar made	Dairy Products	Orchard Products	Tons of Hay	Whole Population	Number of Schools	Scholars
Ashtabula,	5,959	127	1,136	109	4.463	30,019	52,781	$6,273	105,693	142,256	4,229	4,495	171,576	68,836	156,395	148,568	95,117	15,783	34 651	23,724	137	6,190
Cuyahoga,	4,258	423	1,389	218	4,126	22,260	48,065	7,795	106,580	101,398	2,104	5,949	180,781	47.575	149,891	172,428	96,083	18,179	22,742	26,506	174	8,141
Erie,	2,465	94	238	35	2,440	7,155	29,719	3,398	94,112	64,567	1,582	3,958	79,877	32,024	71,687	300	6,633	8,964	6 182	12,599	60	2,955
Geauga,	3,327	53	533	8	3,022	20,094	44,416	5,505	92,511	81.993	1,297	3,503	12[illegible],319	51.091	120,223	351,710	55,323	7,946	19,819	16,297	117	4,885
Huron,	5,942	234	774	9	4,355	23,595	59,565	7,790	164,056	148,669	2,500	5,446	163,293	67,280	147,328	noreport	55,200	9,083	38,664	23,933	146	5,196
Lake,	2,295	150	710	26	3,646	11,568	40,287	4,764	82,570	62,255	2,279	4.717	121,136	33,834	81,462	64,931	54,008	12,541	11,661	13.719	108	6,140
Lorain,	4,215	77	571	33	3,625	20.931	37,961	6,163	134,474	80,291	3,792	3,869	243,034	30.620	109,577	323,644	38,691	12,138	23,765	18,467	100	3,756
Medina,	8,149	165	638	4	3,439	19,265	52,439	6,955	219,438	133.563	5,339	5,320	188,460	52,757	112,664	325,501	42,398	8 715	18,785	18,352	99	4,615
Portage,	6,163	22	972	1	3,520	21,922	37,444	3,075	112,144	119.624	9,497	6,301	113,370	63,116	112,743	258,038	70,245	12,280	30,038	22,965	146	5,178
Summit,	2,485	145	1,032	46	4,852	21,762	66,555	10,786	317,462	188.463	23,070	9,054	289,600	79,614	157,455	107,998	40.853	33,352	20,812	22,560	121	4,199
Trumbull,	7,250	173	1 083	11	9,719	48,835	119,456	1,121	241,563	221.262	24,858	104,557	388,421	146,307	254,284	208,359	211,808	23,712	55.974	38,107	287	13 751
	52,506	1,668	8,876	*513	47,247	247,406	588,688	64,565	1,670,603	1,344,341	76,548	157,259	1,989,867	673,054	1,473,796	1,955,677	866,359	163,595	283,093	237,229	1,505	64,996

* We have never been very fervent believers in the accuracy of the Government census of 1840; nor could corrections have well been established. We know that the agricultural labour of the Reserve has been most awfully underrated; and the crops consequently put at a ruinous minimum. But the most glaring deficiency is exhibited in the data given of persons engaged in commercial pursuits, and the employees in the navigation of the oceans, lakes, rivers, and canals. We find the pitiful sum of one given to our gallant auxiliary PORTAGE, nine to aquatic HURON, and only twenty-six to veteran LAKE! A truer statement would have made the whole of the maritime interest about twenty-five hundred men; the number of men now so engaged directly and indirectly, is nearer 10,000 than 5,000.

But oceans, lakes, rivers, and canals, it seems, are too slow for the progress of the age. The demands of the times require a substitute for the earlier media of inter-governmental and municipal communications; steamship, brig, schooner, and canal-boat, are all to make way for the iron horse and the steam engine; and the traveller claims the wings of the whirlwind instead of the four or ten knot breeze-power of our more sedate predecessors. The Missourian is not content that a week is *wasted* in a journey from the capital of his State to the emporium of the Union; he asks for railroads, that he may make the transit in one-third of the ordinary time. Ohio lies between him and his market and purchase place. The lake takes him too long; the canal-boat is too slow in its progress; and the lengths and breadths of the home of the Buckeyes—its valleys and its streams, from the Ohio to Lake Erie—must become iron lines, along which the rushing thousands of the Mississippi Valley, and the still more remote masses of Western enterprise, may be borne to the capitals lining the Atlantic seaboard.

Cleveland became early awake to the necessity of supplying the demand for more rapid travelling facilities. In 1836, a charter was granted by the Legislature of this State for a railroad company to connect this city with the Ohio river. The subsequent colour of the times prevented any action then or since, until last winter, when the charter was renewed, and a determination shown to act efficiently upon it. At this time, much of difficulty and expense that would have met the undertaking, is removed by the action of other portions of our State. A road is now in full operation from Cincinnati to Zenia, a distance of sixty-five miles; the Columbus and Zenia Company are now locating a continuation of the Little Miami river, (as the Cincinnati and Zenia line is called,) from Zenia to Columbus, a further distance of about fifty miles. With a view, then, to a complete line of railroad from the queen city of the Ohio to the queen city of Lake Erie, all that is necessary is an outlay sufficient to run the rails from Columbus (the capital of Ohio) to Cleveland, its lake emporium. The distance to be overcome is geographically about 140 miles; the survey may probably make it a few miles more. The line will pass through the agricultural arteries of the State, through the heart of its civilization, its central law courts, and public institutions; bringing its business extremes into a relationship of, at the most, a day's journey, and enabling the traveller seeking a passage across it, to save the delay of any of the other great thoroughfares tending towards New York and Boston.

Once construct this railway, and others will rapidly attach thereto, bringing Chilicothe, Newark, Lancaster, and other important towns of the State, to link with, and add to its revenues. The tide of travel, of produce, and merchandise, pouring to and from the seaboard, would naturally find its way through this avenue, and the benefits accruing therefrom to New York and Boston would be immense.

These cities will see at once the advantage of having the wealth of the Western States (we may have better added the South-west) poured into their lap, through the avenue we here treat of. Such a road would affect the object: and when the New York railroad is completed to Dunkirk, how natural will be its extension to Cincinnati, thus completing the chain of railroad facilities from the Ohio river, at Cincinnati to the cities of Boston and New York. One instance of the advantage of thus seizing upon facilities as they presented themselves, fell under the writer's notice, in the spring of the present year. The Pennsylvania improvement of the Monongahela river made it easy for steamboats to ply upon the stream between Pittsburg and Brownsville, on the Cumberland road. The consequences became immediately manifest. Wheeling, the point at which the southwestern merchants formerly quitted the steamer, and took stage for Baltimore, lost its old advantage, and the passenger who had taken his passage from St. Louis, Louisville, and Cincinnati, proceeded on to Pittsburg, thence to Brownsville, avoiding Wheeling altogether. The merchandise purchased at Baltimore and Philadelphia,* was wagoned from Cumberland to Brownsville; there shipped down the Monongahela, leaving Wheeling deprived of the monopoly she had before enjoyed of the travel and carriage on the Pennsylvania and Virginia line of the national road.† If an enterprise, at the first blush seemingly important, should have such a decided effect upon rival regions, what may we not expect from a movement like that now under contemplation?

Cincinnati is the dividing point of travel for commercial men from the Atlantic to the Gulf—from the capes and bays of the northeast to the giant tributaries of the Mississippi on the southwest. To destroy distance is, therefore, the true pursuit of the merchants of the two extremes; hence it is important for New York and Boston to emulate, if possible outdo, their rivals for the trade of the West, &c., Philadelphia and Baltimore. If the eastward current goes up the rivers and crosses the mountains of Pennsylvania, it flows into the two last named cities; and if it finds its way at all into the others, it is with little or no volume whence they can derive a benefit. To quote the remarks of Dawson, the editor of the Rochester Democrat, (who spent a few days here last week, and whose notings down are to be found in a late number of his journal: by the way, it will be as well to explain that the other road alluded to by him is the Mad River road, running from Sandusky, 60 miles west of Cleveland, extending southwestwardly to Zenia,)

"Nine-tenths of all the travelling at Cincinnati towards the lake is bound eastward—Cleveland is 60 miles nearer Buffalo than Sandusky is, and in almost a straight line between the extremes. The harbour is always accessible, and every boat passing through Lake Erie stops at Cleveland, and this cannot be said as to any other port on the lake. This road will be longer by perhaps 20 or 30 miles than the other, but the lake passage to Buffalo will be 60 miles less. Cleveland is a common point to which every traveller by either route, going down the lake, must come; and it may be presumed, other things being equal, that a passage may be made from Cincinnati to Cleveland by this route, in three or four hours less than by the other. For the same reason, all persons going up the lake would take the Sandusky route—and the number is rapidly increasing. The diminished time consumed by this line would induce many persons to come to the lake who would not otherwise; for hours now are what years were, and not a "long time ago" either.

But the two roads will not come in conflict at all, except for the comparatively few travellers who might wish to pass from river to lake without regard to intermediate points. By reference to the reports on long lines, it will be seen that seven-eighths of the passengers are those termed "way," picked up and set down along the route. There can be little doubt, if any, that the domestic business of each road would sustain it; but the travelling from abroad would be very great at once, and would increase till every rood of land in the Mississippi Valley sustained its man. The number of passengers going up and down the Ohio river between Pittsburg and Cincinnati, I have no means of ascertaing, but their name is legion. During six months of the year, very many of them would take the lake route, and a fourth part of those now passing on the river would alone make good dividends on one road, if not on two.

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* The Philadelphia merchants that they might compete with Baltimore, actually paid the freights, &c., on all goods purchased therein, to Cumberland.

† The departure from Pittsburg to Brownville we have seen quoted, in a Pittsburg paper, at over 1,100 in one week.

Let this road be completed, and there can be little doubt in the minds of men who recollect that 20 years ago one small steamboat, making a trip in 10 or 12 days between Buffalo and Detroit, could hardly earn money enough to pay for her fuel, while now, there are three large boats every way, each day, that the gap between them would be speedily filled, and thus make a continuous iron road from New York to Cincinnati, to be travelled by iron horses in from 40 to 50 hours."

Cleveland has at once taken hold of the matter as she should. At a public meeting of her citizens, held very recently, it was decided that $200,000 of stock was to be taken by the city, while private subscriptions will swell this amount. Columbus, and doubtless Cincinnati, will also do something; the counties on the travelled line will also act to the best of their ability; and there can be little doubt that eastern capitalists interested in the construction of such an avenue to the great West, will furnish the remainder; their investments being placed beyond the remotest possibility of loss by the security afforded in the road itself. The survey has been ordered, and will commence immediately, starting from this place. The Board organized at Columbus on the 11th inst., and appointing their officers, resolved on energetic operation.

With this railroad, to say nothing of others, we will soon show you a population of fifty thousand, with a commensurate advance in our already commanding business interests.

LOCKPORT, IN NIAGARA COUNTY, N. Y.,

ITS RISE, PRESENT CONDITION, AND PROSPECTS.

WITHIN the period of thirty years may be found nearly all the occurrences which make up the history of Western New York. Anterior to that time, a dense, heavy forest of towering timber, with roots struck deep in an alluvial soil, from which it received nourishment for its overgrown size, covered nearly the whole surface of the region known by that name.

It is true that here some hardy adventurers had penetrated the country on Indian trails, and in different directions made openings of stumpy, rooty passes, which they called roads; through which others equally bold had found their way to various points, and resolutely commenced the work of destruction upon the sturdy growth of timber, which has since been so completely demolished by the perseverence of the present possessors of the soil.

The few scattered inhabitants shared but little in the luxuries of the present day. If they carried their products to market, it was over rough, boggy roads, several hundred miles, on wagons, and the expense of a tedious, pinching, laborious journey, left but little to purchase the scanty necessaries to bring back in return.

Nearly all the first settlers entered the country pennyless, and depended on these precarious resources to pay for their land, which was usually purchased on credit.

They had first to fell and destroy the timber. This left the earth covered with stumps and filled with roots wove and twisted into each other, between which they had to insinuate the seed in hope of a coming crop. It was years before these stumps and roots became so decayed as to enable them to plough the soil.

The scarcity of mills for grinding their grain, drove them sometimes to the use of the samp mortar, and at others to carry their grain from twenty to fifty miles to be ground into bread stuffs.

But these were not the most formidable obstacles to their comfort. The soil of deep vegetable deposit, filled with decaying roots and fibres, and covered on the surface with decomposing leaves, barks, and fragments of wood, as it come to be stirred up and cultivated, sent forth a poisonous malaria in its evaporation, destructive to human health; and by the middle of summer nearly every family had a portion of its members, and often all of them, thrown upon their backs with scorching bilious fevers, of a highly malignant character.

This season of sickness, suffering, and death, lasted from two to three months every year, and usually left few indeed able to gather the scanty products that had been grown under so many disadvantages.

It is deemed proper to recur to these troubles and sufferings, to give the traveller of the present day, who passes, admiring the highly cultivated and spacious fields, and beholds the country enjoying all the comforts and rich varieties of this world and with its superabundant production, subsidizing Eastern New York and all New England, to know what it has cost, and to what advantage human toil may be applied when wisely and energetically directed.

The individual labour and perseverance of a few, penetrated the forest and made an opening for numerous others, each day adding to what had been previously done ; but the great and crowning measure which burst upon this region and filled the forest with "men like trees walking," was the Erie Canal, opening in the valley of indigence and hardship, " a door of confiding hope" and rich promise.

It is true they had already inland seas, but they were surrounded with desolate forests, inhabited only by savage beasts and savage men, and had no practicable or passable outlet. The canal joined the waters of these seas with the Atlantic, and gave Western New York, before excluded, a communication with both. Then, and not till then, began the real existence and onward course of this interesting region of country.

Niagara county at that time the wildest and least settled of any part of the country east of Lake Erie, is bounded on the west by Niagara river, north by Lake Ontario, east by Orleans and south by Genesee county and Tonawanda river. Its area is about 500 square miles.

Lockport, situated on what is called the mountain ridge, about 18 miles from Niagara Falls, the same distance from Lewiston on Niagara river, and eight miles from the Tonawanda river, was then the most forbidding, and to all appearance the most undesirable spot in the whole West.

When the canal was surveyed through the mountain ridge, it had not a single inhabitant within the limits of the present corporation.

Its vicinity in every direction was an unsettled forest. The ridge where the locks now stand, was a rocky precipice, where the table broke off into a ravine 100 feet deep, which was dry except in time of flood.

It is generally known that the Erie canal beginning at the outlet of the lake, takes from it the water which feeds about 160 miles of the canal below, extending to Montezuma. From Lake Erie the water is first brought in a canal along the border of Niagara river to the Tonawanda near its mouth, across which a dam is thrown eight feet high, just below where the canal enters, and the Tonawanda waters, together with the waters of the canal, are turned up stream by means of this dam about 11 miles, to within eight miles of Lockport, Through this distance the water is from 15 to 30 feet deep and about 200 wide. Here the canal again taps the side of the river, and turns the channel through the deep, rocky cut to Lockport, eight miles, thus keeping up a level from Lake Erie with sufficient declivity to form a gentle current.

At this place there is a continuous lockage from one prism to another, down the ridge, on to the Genesee level below, sixty feet. The canal then passes along at the foot of the mountain ridge one mile. The water is taken out above the locks from necessity, because it cannot be passed through, and is carried along the ridge on a sixty foot elevation for nearly a mile, in a race, from which water is drawn, used twice and three times over for propelling machinery, and turned into the canal again. This with Lake Erie for a milldam, a never-failing supply of water, relieved from the inconvenience of floods and droughts, is one of the best and most reliable water powers in the Union. The whole power has been estimated by competent engineers, as sufficient to turn machinery enough to carry at least 80 pair of 4½ foot burrs.

The ground along at the foot of the mountain ridge, between the race and the canal, forms most excellent sites for erecting buildings for machinery. And from the ridge along these sites, is a continuous quarry of calcareous rock, from which superiour building stone of any dimensions are most easily quarried, so that few places on the globe can furnish cheaper and more substantial buildings.

With a navigation on one side, and water to be drawn from the other, and such convenience for building, the reader will readily see that this place could not long fail to attract attention.

The canal at that place was commenced the latter part of the year 1820 and the beginning of 1821, and with it commenced the village. The first operation was the erection of temporary shantees to shelter the labourers on the canal. The work was finished and the water let in, in the month of October, 1825.

When the canal was completed and the labourers dismissed, there were left a few families, in all about five hundred people. Enterprising settlers came from various quarters, and commenced the erection of stores, storehouses, and hydraulic machinery, and in 1828 they had 1,200 inhabitants.

In 1836, they had increased to 3,700; in 1840, to 5,000. There are now 7,000.

Its growth since its first settlement has been steady and uniform. Such has also been the case with the county, and their proportions have been nearly the same at all periods. The county by the last census contained 34,651 people.

The business of Lockport, which is manufacturing and commercial, is as well sustained as any town in the State. They have eleven churches, and a good supply of other public buildings. Their business establishments are flouring mills with 30 pair of burrs, which manufactured in 1844, 159,771 barrels of flour: 134,771 were shipped. During the present season of navigation, up to the third week in October, 96,228 barrels had been shipped The quantity will be nearly doubled by the close of navigation. Eight saw mills with forty-three saws are constantly employed there in sawing ship plank and other lumber. They have one woollen factory, one cotton factory with 2,000 spindles, three wool-carding and cloth-dressing establishments, one glass factory, two machine shops for iron-turning and finishing, two foundries, using 300 tons of pig iron annually, two large tanning establishments, one piano factory, two gun factories, one last factory, one patent fence and bedstead factory, one brass foundry, one sash factory, one skin-dressing establishment, four cabinet shops, several cooperages, where about half a million of barrels a year are made for this and neighbouring towns; also various other minor establishments, such as wagon and carriage makers, tool makers, blacksmiths, miliners, &c., &c.

They have 22 dry goods stores, 15 groceries, three clothing stores, four hat, cap, and fur stores, two window sash and paint stores, 14 provision and eating establishments, two leather stores, four hardware stores, three book and stationary stores, and three druggist establishments.

A large number of labourers are constantly employed in quarrying and cutting stone, for home use, and for neighbouring towns. About $60,000 worth have this year been sold to Buffalo and Rochester.

The business of preparing and burning water-lime cements, of which there is an inexhaustible bed of superiour quality, is carried on extensively, and is a source of considerable traffic.

The town of Lockport, from its situation above and below the declivity of the mountain ridge, is well watered with good springs and is remarkably healthy. Even at an early day, when the country was so subject to bilious and intermittent fever, the place was comparatively free from those complaints. Its location in the vicinity of Canada, enables it to carry on no inconsiderable trade with that province. More than half of the surplus products are disposed of to their Canada neighbours. Cotton goods to a considerable extent, tools for farming purposes, and many other articles, find a ready and profitable market among the Canadians.

ITS PROSPECTS.

From the location of this town, there can be little doubt it is destined to advance in population and business, in about the same ratio as hitherto.

Its manufactures are yet in their infancy, and considering its capabilities, little doubt can be entertained that this branch of industry alone will, in any event, be the means within a few years of quadrupling the present population. It has an extensive country round, for the business of which, there is no other place to compete with them. This country is comparatively new, and not more than one-third of the soil yet cultivated. The work of destroying timber and bringing new fields into cultivation is yet in extensive progress. Its more dense population, and more general cultivation will be a constant source of increase to the business of the town.

The Erie canal now connecting the waters of the great lakes and Ohio river, and soon to connect the Upper Mississippi, thus communicating with waters which wash fertile borders following the demonstration of more than 15,000 miles, and passing through this town, enables the place to keep up an interchange with an immense region of country.

The enlargement of the Erie canal would more than triple their water power, enable them to transport their stone, water-lime, and other articles of trafic, to a much greater distance, and thus vastly increase the export of these exhaustless products.

A most important consideration in favour of the Erie enlargement is, that it will reduce more than two-thirds from the present expense of transportation on the canal. Of this benefit, Lockport will come in for a double share. The same power now required for the traction of 40 tons on the canal, would then tow 150 tons. Cheapening transportation would cause an immense increase of articles that would be floated, and greatly enlarge the area of country that would make it the channel of communication.

When we contemplate the mighty region west, bordering upon the lakes and streams, which will make this great inland navigation its channel, if enlarged to dimensions suitable to the cheap passage of their products, it seems strange, indeed, that this enlargement should be thus delayed.

To the inhabitants of our own State who use the canal a saving of one-half what transportation now costs would be a most important item to swell the amount of their profits. To the far West comprising Ohio, Illinois, Michigan, Wisconsin, Iowa, the greater part of Indiana, parts of Kentucky and Missouri, possessing a population of five millions of enterprising people, operating upon a luxuriant soil, and their rapidly multiplying numbers and resources, the enlargement would create a new era, and would form to them a vast source of never-ending advantage.

Whatever may have been the propriety of stopping or suspending the enlargement, when it had been more than half finished, no steady observer of events can doubt that public opinion is so constantly tending to induce a resumption of it, and public necessity so rapidly disclosing its essential importance, that the day is near at hand when it will be resumed and completed.

It is not the interest of the West alone that is concerned in this matter, New York city is more deeply interested than any other point; all New England needs it for a channel to penetrate the Western confines. Nor can the *expense* much longer prove an objection to frighten the timid. Who will *pay* the expense? is a question often asked. The answer is easy—those who transport their products on the canal. And who are they? The West—the very section of the country that advocates its completion with such unanimity.

The States west of New York now pay a large majority of our canal revenue. Enlarge it so as to invite a more extensive area, and divert them from other channels they are now forced to seek, and they will pay four-fifths of the revenue, and thus become permanently tributary to this State.

An increase of revenue co-extensive with the increase of its capacity is no longer a problem. The canal tolls the present year will not fall much short of two and a half millions of dollars; a sum sufficient to pay the interest on our canal debt, and leave a surplus of a million of dollars; or to pay the interest on the whole debt of the State, and leave a surplus of seven hundred thousand dollars.

With the immense increase of the price of transportation, owing to the already insufficiency of the canal to carry the whole, and the large quantity of products that must be held on hand through the winter for want of room to transport it through the canal, and these disadvantages increasing every year, and accumulating upon a numerous population, and becoming every day more apparent, little doubt can be entertained that public attention will be so directed to the subject as to enforce its accomplishment.

Other measures calculated to exercise an important influence on the growth of Lockport are also near at hand. The railroad system, which is working such mighty changes in the business and commerce of the world, is likely to become an important element in the growth of this town. They have already a road completed from Niagara Falls to this place, which also connects with the Falls and Buffalo road.

Measures are in progress, which augur speedy success, to extend it from Lockport to Rochester, thus connecting it with the line of roads east, and with Lake Erie at Buffalo, and with Niagara river.

From Niagara river a road is chartered in Canada, called the *Great Western Railroad*, leading through Hamilton and London, passing towns containing 20,000, and along a country containing 250,000 people, to Windsor, opposite Detroit. The stock has all been subscribed, £175,000 sterling paid in, and a corps of topographical engineers are in a few days to commence surveying the line and preparing the work for letting. The whole is to be completed in a most substantial manner as fast as the work can be done.

In connexion with this, a number of gentlemen stand ready to build a suspension bridge across Niagara river below the Falls, sufficient to pass cars and locomotives on, and wait only to obtain a charter from the two governments, to subscribe the stock and commence the work.

When these measures are completed, (of which scarce a doubt can remain,) there will be a continuous line of railroads from Boston through this town to Niagara Falls; and from the Falls, through Canada, to the Detroit and Michigan lake road, called the Central railroad, leading from St. Josephs about four hours, steamboat run from Chicago.

Thus Lockport will be placed on a direct line of continuous railroad of about one thousand miles. It is believed that this road from the Falls to Rochester will carry nearly all the passengers between Michigan, Wisconsin, Iowa, Upper Canada, and New York and New England; and also take the principal part of the travel from the lakes through Buffalo, going east; thus, perhaps, becoming one of the largest travelling thoroughfares in the world.

When the extent, resources, and rapidly increasing population of the mighty West, are carried forward to the future, the mind becomes bewildered in their contemplation. The present is all we can fully comprehend.

NEW ORLEANS, AND THE STATE OF LOUISIANA.

We have before us, a very neat and beautifully printed miniature book, called "Norman's New Orleans and Environs, containing a brief historical sketch of the Territory and State of Louisiana, and the City of New Orleans, &c., &c."

The public are very much indebted to Mr. Norman, for this interesting little book, and to show the value we set upon its contents, we now take the liberty to transfer to our columns some of its important historical facts, recommending to our readers who may feel an interest in the very lucid account given of the original settlement, progress, and the present state of that interesting portion of the Union, to purchase the book itself, which, to say nothing of the beautiful frontispiece, and numerous fine wood cuts, will, in a perusal of its text, amply compensate them for the expenditure of seventy-five cents, which is its cost.

But to our extracts.

"The line of the western boundary of Louisiana follows the Sabine river to the 32nd degree of north latitude—thence due north to the Red river, along that river to the meridian of 100 degrees west longitude; thence due north to the Arkansas river, ascending that to its source; thence due north to the 42nd degree of north latitude, and along that parallel to the Pacific Ocean. Its northern boundary is a matter of dispute, involving the much mooted question on the Oregon Territory.

"Juan Ponce de Leon, a Spanish adventurer, first visited these regions in 1512. He gave the name of Florida to all the country lying west of the place of his landing, in consequence of that landing having taken place on 'Pascha Florida,' or Palm Sunday. Ponce died on an adventure into the interiour, in search of the *Fountain of Immortal Youth*, which the Indians represented as gushing up in one of the Elysian villages of the West. Nothing further was known of these regions till Hernandez de Soto, having been made Governor of Cuba, and Adelentado of Florida, undertook, with six hundred men, to explore the country; his journey occupied four years. He was followed by Lewis de Moscoso, or Mucoso, who, it appears, built seven brigantines on the Mississippi, and with them descended the river, pursued by thousands of exasperated Indians. It is manifest," says Mr. Norman, "from De Soto's expedition, that a dense population once covered the whole territory, and that they were a race infinitely superiour to the tribes which remain. These mighty regions from this time remained for more than a century undisturbed, in the peaceable possession of the aborigines, till, in 1654, Col. Wood, from the infant Colony of Virginia, wandered into them and crossed the Mississippi, but nothing resulted from his visit, and they laid neglected twenty-one years more.

"In 1673, Marquette, a French monk, and Joliet, a trader from Quebec, traversed the great Northern lakes, ascended the Fox river, to its source, and to Wisconsin, and descended that river to the Mississippi. Six years after the return of Marquette and Joliet, Robert, Chevalier de la Salle, commenced a further exploration of the Mississippi. With seventeen men he proceeded to the Little Miami, near the mouth of which he built a fort; from thence he traversed the country till he reached the Falls of St. Anthony, descended the Mississippi to the Gulf of Mexico, and returned by land to Quebec. He made another trip, and was murdered on the 19th March, 1687, by one of his own party.

"In 1699, Iberville passed out of the mouth of the Mississippi into the Gulf of Mexico; he, also, formed a settlement and erected a fort at Biloxi, which he left under the command of his brother 'Bienville.'

"A British vessel of sixteen guns, it appears, under the command of a Captain Bard, inquired of Bienville the bearings of the great river, intimating that he intended making a settlement on its banks. Bienville directed him to go farther west, and thus induced him to turn about, from which circumstance this place acquired the name of the *English Turn*, which it retains till the present day.

"Iberville soon returned and planted a colony at Natchez, and, leaving Bienville in command, returned to France. He was indefatigable in his exertions to render prominent his little colony," and Mr. Norman says, "may be regarded as the father of Louisiana. Bienville succeeded him and retained the office till 1710.

"In 1712, the French Government granted to Antonio Crozat, a rich merchant of Paris, the monopoly of the trade to Louisiana, which he surrendered in 1717. In 1717, a new charter was issued, under the style of the Western Company, with the exclusive privilege of the trade to Louisiana for twenty-five years. Bienville was again chosen Governor, and in 1718 he laid the foundation of New Orleans.

"The chief personage in this Western Company was the notorious John Law, the author of the famous Mississippi scheme. A horrible massacre took place at Natchez, in 1729, part of a plan devised among the Mississippi tribes for a general butchery of the whole colony; but they mistook the time, and commenced their work too soon, and thus timely warning was given to other settlements. Bienville returned to France, in 1727, and was succeeded by Pevrier.

"In 1732, the charter was returned to the King. Bienville was a third time appointed Governor, and so continued till 1741. The cultivation of the sugar cane did not commence till 1751. A large accession was made to the colony in 1754.

"The seven years' war between France and England ended in the cession to the latter power of all the French possessions in North America, except Louisiana.

"This was in 1763. In the course of the same year Louisiana was transferred by treaty to the crown of Spain, and in 1766, Don Uloa was sent out as Governor; but the colonists resisted, and Don Uloa was obliged to return. In 1769, Don O'Reiley, a renegade Irishman, was appointed, and he caused those who had first resisted Don Uloa to be put to death. Five principal citizens were publicly shot—five more were consigned to the dungeons of the Moro Castle, at Havana. He introduced the Spanish colonial system, and subjected the inhabitants to every species of indignity and abuse. He was recalled and disgraced. His successor was Unzaga, who was shortly succeeded by Galvez.

"The colony enjoyed a brief season of quiet; but the war of 1779, between England and Spain, gave him an opportunity to show his royal zeal and exercise his military talents. He invaded Florida, took possession of Baton Rouge and Fort Charlotte, near Mobile, and proceeded to Pensacola, which, after an obstinate resistance, yielded to his authority, and thus was the Spanish dominion completely established in Florida. In 1785, an attempt was made to establish the inquisition in Louisiana. It was fearlessly opposed, and fortunately crushed—the agent seized in his bed, and sent home to Spain.

"A census of the province, taken in 1788, just ninety years from the date of the first settlement, showed a population of 42,611. Of these, 19,445 were whites, 21,465 slaves, and 1,701 coloured free men.[*] New Orleans, then seventy years old, contained 5,338 inhabitants. The total population of New Orleans in 1840, was 102,193.

"The Baron De Carondelet was appointed Governor in 1792, and during his administration, in 1794, the first newspaper, called 'Le Moniteur,' was published in Louisiana. In 1795, by the treaty of St. Lorenzo, the navigation of the Mississippi was opened to the Western States of the Union, and the great impulse given to the commercial prosperity of New Orleans. The same treaty defined the boundaries as they now exist between Florida and Mississippi, but Carondelet, being rather more tardy in yielding possession than suited the active enterprising spirit of the Americans, the territory was seized by an armed force under Andrew Elliott.

"A few years after this, a plan was set on foot by Carondelet to dismember the American Union, by drawing the Western States into a separate compact; it was, however, detected and defeated.

"In 1803, Louisiana was tranferred to France, and immediately sold to the United States for $15,000,000. The population at the time of the purchase did not exceed fifty thousand, exclusive of the Indians, and these were scattered over every part of the immense territory—seven years after, the population had increased nearly three fold, and prosperity had advanced in equal proportion.

"The year 1812 was a remarkable era in the history of Louisiana, and marked with incidents never to be forgotten by her citizens. It was in this year that the first steamboat was seen on the bosom of the great river, now alive with hundreds of these winged messengers plying to and fro.

"In the same year Louisiana, as now constituted, was admitted as an independent State into the American confederacy."

MANUFACTURES OF RICHMOND, VIRGINIA.

To the Editor of the National Magazine:

Sir: I have read with great pleasure and much improvement the three first numbers of your valuable magazine. It is what the working-men of the country needed, to inform them of the movements of their co-labourers throughout the land.

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[*] The total population of Louisiana in 1840 was 352,411, of which 25.502 were free coloured, and, 68,452 were slaves, leaving a free white population of 158,457.

Belonging to that class, I cannot withhold my acknowledgements for so enlightened and patriotic an effort to teach the mechanic and manufacturer properly to appreciate the important position they occupy, and how much of true national greatness is dependent upon their moral and intellectual culture.

We of the South, who have ventured to become pioneers in manufacturing, require in an especial manner such support and teachings as are to be found in your book.

Here, agriculture is the favourite pursuit: popular sentiment, long established customs, and, indeed, the whole structure of society, tends to make it so; and he who ventures out *of the beaten track* is regarded as an experimenter in hazardous things.

To this state of feeling, more than to any other cause, in my humble judgement, are we to attribute the backwardness of Virginia in improving her great natural advantages for a varied and widely-diffused industry.

Nature has indeed been bountiful in her gifts to our people; every thing which constitutes the basis of prosperity and wealth elsewhere, we have, distributed from the seaboard to the mountains, and from the mountains to the Ohio—one of the great arms of what is to be a highway of nations. Yet we neglect them all, and continue to hoe corn and plant tobacco for a scanty support, because our fathers did so before us; but your book will teach us better things, I trust.

These remarks are correct when applied to the State at large; but it is also true, that in certain highly favoured localities, something has been done in manufacturing and in the mechanic arts—enough, it would seem, to demonstrate the utility of doing more; yet we almost stand still.

At Richmond, greater effort has been made than at any other place; the advantages presented there are unrivalled. The city is healthy, remarkably so, for a tide water location. Provisions, house rent, and fuel, are as cheap as in any Northern city of the same population. The water power provided by the James river and Kanawha canal, Haxhall canal, and by the Belle Isle Manufacturing Company, is ample to drive hundreds of factories of respectable size.

But Richmond enjoys another great advantage, which is peculiar to herself, when compared with any other point in the Atlantic States so near the Ocean. The great coal field at her back is the wall of her strength as a manufacturing city. You may look from Maine to the Gulf of Mexico—nay, I believe I may say, to Cape Horn—and you cannot find the same assemblage of essentials for extending and diversifying industrial pursuits, as at Richmond:

The coal field commences in the county of Henrico, ten miles west of the city, and of course within that distance of sea-going vessels; in an east and west line it has a breadth of 12 to 15 miles, to Dover, in the county of Goochland. From north to south the field has been explored for 30 to 35 miles, embracing the recently established works near the Appamattox river. The most extensive workings on the north side of James river are those of Crouches, Sneeds, Wickhams, Broch-es-broughs, Barrs and Duvals, at Dover. On the south side are the celebrated Black Heath, Midlochias, and Stone Hing Pits, with several less important mines, all of which are successfully worked. The great coal field, you will observe, is not *to be* explored. All is known that need be known to determine both its extent and the quality and quantity of coals it contains.

Railroads and canals have not *to be* made to transport its productions—they are already in existence, ample in dimensions, and admirable in construction, and all, with one exception, having a common terminus at Richmond.

These advantages, as before observed, have been improved to some extent. The Tredegar rolling mill and foundry are extensive works, erected in 1836–37, and stand on the bank of the James river and Kanawha canal, from which is derived the water power for propelling the machinery, and down which the iron and coal for its use are brought. At this establishment malleable iron of excellent quality is produced in large quantities, and in every variety required for commercial and agricultural purposes. As much as 4,000 tons can be manufactured annually. Attached to the rolling mill is a large foundry for ordinary work and for the fabrication of ordnance, as well as extensive shops for building steam engines, sugar mills, &c., &c. At these works very extensive contracts for chain cables, cannons, cannon balls, and shells for government have been executed, to the entire satisfaction of our excellent, but very rigid, inspecting officers.

The Belle Isle iron works are situated on Belle Isle, about one mile from the iron works on the canal. Here are produced from twelve to fifteen hundred tons of nails annually. This establishment was enlarged in 1738–9, but is not yet completed according to the original design of its proprietors. The two works give employment to 150 men and boys; but, if you take into account those who are indirectly employed, by them, in the coal mines, and in the mountains producing the pig iron consumed, the number is not short of 350 to 400 persons.

There are several other well-conducted foundries in the city, the most important of which are those of Messrs. Pea, Burr, & Sampson; Talbott & Brothers; and Barnes & Co. At the former foundry locomotives and steam engines are built that are highly approved.

There is a large cotton factory, built in 1826–7, but greatly enlarged since. It contains 5,000 to 6,000 spindles, and 80 to 100 looms. The cloth and yarn produced are excellent. It gives employment to 150 hands, or thereabouts. Since the tariff of 1842, and before the disasters of 1837, it paid well. A woollen factory has been recently erected, but I am not informed as to its extent or success. The Manchester cotton factory may be considered as a Richmond enterprise, though it is on the south side of the river. In size, it is not materially different from the Richmond mill. Its productions stand equally well in the market, and the dividends to the stockholders have latterly been satisfactory.

The Gallego and Haxhall flour mills are the largest in the United States—the great mills at Rochester not excepted—and the flour turned out from them commands better prices than any other. It is almost exclusively shipped to, and consumed in South America.

This hasty sketch of Richmond and its manufactories may serve to inform some of your readers of the advantages of its position, and possibly induce the knowing ones in such matters to look for themselves. If this or any other good shall result, I shall be fully compensated for the short time I have been enabled to devote to this communication.

Very respectfully yours,

F. B. D., Jun.

AGRICULTURE AND MANUFACTURES

IN CONNECTICUT.

TRANSACTIONS OF THE HARTFORD COUNTY AGRICULTURAL SOCIETY.

In our last number, under the head of the late "Eighteenth Annual Fair of the American Institute," we stated, the gratification we felt at the increasing number of agricultural societies, clubs, and fairs, which are spreading throughout the Union; and have now great pleasure, in confirmation of those remarks, to present to our readers some account of the transactions of the Hartford County Agricultural Society, for the years 1843–44, and the present year. Through the kindness of Philip Ripley, Esq., of Hartford, we are put in possession of these transactions of the society, which possess great interest.

Before noticing such parts of them as our limited space will permit, we think it due to the patriotic state of Connecticut to make a few general remarks on the manner in which industry of every kind is there promoted, and the best interests of the country advanced, through the indomitable perseverence of her hardy, enterprising, and ingenious citizens.

We are the more prompted to do this, believing, as we do, that nothing like justice has heretofore been awarded to that really beautiful State and eminently industrious portion of the Republic. Nor can we withhold from our readers a revival of the fact that Connecticut, among the gallant thirteen States that founded our matchless institutions, ranked among her sons the foremost in bravery and in wisdom. In the former, the names of Allen, Eaton, and Ledyard, stand high on the rolls of chivalric enterprise; while those of Sherman, Trumbull, Hale, Ledyard, and Wooster, are equally renowned for their patriotic fervour. As poets, she had Trumbull, Barlow, Dwight, and others—while Trumbull, as a painter, was among the first who excelled in the historic department of an art in which, in more modern times, American genius has not been among the least distinguished.

According to professor Tucker's view of the progress of the population and wealth of the United States, "Connecticut, in 1840, produced of

Manufactures,	$18,662.425	
Deduct value of raw material, estimated at 33⅓ pr. ct.	6,220,808	
	12,441,617	
Manufactures by mills, deducting three-fourths,	135,877	
Printing,	201,469	— 12,778,963
In Agriculture,		11,371,776
Commerce, 25 per cent., on capital $7,853,124,		1,963,281
Fisheries,		907,723
Mines,		820,419
The Forest,		181,575
		$28,023,737

The population, according to the same author, was, in

1790.	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.
238,141	251,002	262,042	275,202	297,675	309,978

The value of industry in manufactures will be made fully manifest by one single comparison, which we are tempted to make, to show what can be done, by introducing a division of labour in industrious pursuits, beyond what is achieved in confining it chiefly to the single business of agriculture.

The Professor thus gives the population and industry of South Carolina in the same work.

Agriculture,	$21,553,691
Manufactures,	2,248,915
The Forest,	549,626
Mines,	187,608
Fisheries,	1,275
Commerce,	2,632,421
	$27,173,536

While the population of South Carolina is nearly double that of Connecticut, being stated by Professor Tucker as follows:

1790.	1800.	1810.	1820.	1830.	1840.
249,073	345,591	415,115	502,741	581,185	594,398

In Connecticut, a population of 309,978 produces…………… $28,023,637
In South Carolina, " " 594,398 " …………… 27,173,536

But we are wandering from our purpose, and now return to the account of the Hartford County Fairs.

In 1843, the Report, after stating the encouraging accounts they have to give on the score of agriculture and its improvement, which we omit as better comporting with the nature of another ably conducted periodical, in this city, (The Farmer's Journal of Agriculture,) gives an account of the exhibition of domestic manufactures, in which they state, that,

"With a population and territory far less than several other States, Connecticut has for many years held the fifth rank in manufacturing importance. She is destined at an early period to take even a much higher station. While we continue to hold our own in the manufacture of wool, cotton, silk, leather, and paper, we shall soon be known as the first 'HARDWARE STATE' in the Union.

"There is manifest among our mechanics a peculiar trait of character for invention and improvement, which is sure to lead to successful results. The man who, by mechanical improvement, facilitates the production of the necessaries or comforts of civilized life, is a blessing to his race; and not less so is he, who, by the touch of his genius, heightens and embellishes the enjoyment of them."

The Report then goes on to enumerate the various articles in a more extended manner than our space will permit. We much regret that we can only in general terms enumerate them. As first, family productions, such as carpets, flannels, bedquilts, &c., drawings, fine shell work, and the gathering and arranging of flowers, all of which merited praise—as well as a great variety of embroidery, highly creditable to the taste of the ladies.

Splendid carpets and rugs, from the Thompsonville and Tariffville factories, which were the pride of the Fair; knit wool and merino shawls, from the works of James Turnbull, of Windsor; figured cassimeres, from the New England Company, at Windsor; blue broadcloth, from Derby; black and drab satinetts, from Waterbury. Numerous specimens of sewing silk and silk goods. Fine woollen yarns, from Uxbridge. Cotton duck, made at Hartford. Umbrellas, also made at Hartford. Silk and cotton braids, from Middletown. Printed floor cloths, hair work, boots and shoes, ready made clothing, hats, paper hangings, &c. Household furniture, such as card tables, &c., of elegant workmanship and finish. Blank books and paper, not to be excelled. Dressed skins and leather; many specimens of chemicals, which the committee suggest can be profitably and greatly extended. Rye and corn mills, ivory and boxwood rules, ivory combs, cutlery of all kinds, metal and pearl buttons, locks and brass work, door latches, lamps, hinges, tacks, brads and shoe nails, tailors' shears, surgeons' instruments, liquid ink, and almost every article of hardware, cut nails and brads, tin ware, jewellery, Halbach steel, Salisbury iron, blistered steel, edge tools of every kind.

After enumerating and stating much more fully than our space will permit the merits of these articles, and inserting, in all cases, where and by whom manufactured, the committee thus conclude:

"In conclusion, your committee would take this occasion to say, that so far as their inquiry and observation has gone, no exhibition of domestic manufactures ever held by the society has embraced a larger variety of new and valuable articles, or given more general satisfaction to the manufacturers and the public." They then give a list of seventy-two articles, of the various manufactures of wool, silk, flax, and hardware, of which $79,239,398 were imported in 1837, and only $36,238,752 in 1840. Making less paid for foreign articles of this description, in 1840 than in 1837, of the enormous sum of $43,000,646, every one of which articles are now manufactured in the State of Connecticut, and many of them in Hartford County. Eighty-one premiums are then awarded; one of a gold medal to the Thompsonville Company for the carpets, &c., and eighty-one silver medals, and seventy-nine diplomas, when the Report on domestic manufactures, signed by Philip Ripley, its chairman, is concluded.

The next fair of this society was held in October, 1844, from which we copy the following Report of the Committee on American Manufactures, signed Philip Ripley, chairman.

REPORT OF THE COMMITTEE ON DOMESTIC MANUFACTURES.

To the Hartford County Agricultural Society:

The Committee on Domestic Manufactures offer the following Report:

The exhibition of the productions of domestic industry, at the present Annual Fair, has been such as to afford much cause for congratulation, and fully confirms the evidence formerly given, not only of the onward and successful growth of home manufactures, and their ability to supply much of our wants and comforts, but the variety and quality of the specimens offered for exhibition at the last and present Fairs, furnish us with the most substantial and gratifying proofs, that in almost every article and fabric, the production of which has been attempted by our mechanics and manufacturers, the form, the finish, and the quality, is not only *improved*, but generally *excels* the foreign article of similar kind and character, and that which must be equally gratifying to the *consumer*, it is found, by long and satisfactory experience and trial, that *the home manufacture costs less money and does more service than the foreign article.*

As the first and leading "objects of this Society are the promotion and improvement of AGRICULTURE and RURAL ECONOMY," it may not be improper to allude to the immediate and intimate connexion which should exist between the farmer and the mechanic, the agriculturist and the manufacturer, and it will be apparent how mutually dependent and beneficial they are towards each other, and that the full and active promotion of the interests of the manufacturer, by any permanent and general policy, will be found equally encouraging and satisfactory to the farming interests of the country.

In establishing their works in a rich agricultural district, like the county of Hartford, the manufacturers derive important advantages for supplies of provisions and other comforts for their labourers, and material for their works, and they also find a ready home market for *some* of the productions of their skill, while the farmers are greatly benefited, by finding an accessible and permanent market *for every thing they have to sell;* and many articles which would be valueless to transport to a distant market, become important items of income to the farmer by a ready sale in *a home market*, while fresh and in their season, and most acceptable to the consumer.

The farmer and manufacturer, who mutually make their own exchanges in their own neighbourhood, both obtain *more* for *their* articles, and each gets his purchase *cheaper* than could possibly be the case if the purchase and sale were made in a distant market. No matter what may be the "money price," there is a clear saving to the working classes of different pursuits, and by bringing them nearer together, and thus diminishing or annihilating the cost and risk of transportation and delay, and the intermediate profits and commercial charges, instead of exchanging their productions across half the circumference of the globe.

All who work at manufactures and trades are withdrawn from agricultural pursuits; they become *consumers*, and give those engaged in agriculture more customers and better chances for a ready market and good prices. The multiplication of useful trades and avocations, contributes to the better profit and employment of all classes, and adds to national wealth and respectability.

A home market *for every thing* is more certain and secure, and is attended with much less risk, expense, and delay, than a foreign one. The money paid for produce and domestic manufactures, instead of going abroad, impoverishing and exhausting the country, *remains at home to enrich it*, to add new capital and create new sources of employment to every department of domestic enterprise.

By extending *permanent and mutual encouragement and support* to the farmers and manufacturers, we are enabled to consume AMERICAN produce and raw material, to give AMERICAN LABOUR the *work* and the *reward*. It relieves us from the taxes of foreign governments, included in the cost of foreign goods, and rescues us from the support and impositions of foreign factors and agents—and extends the basis and fortifies the structure of individual wealth and national independence, and will continue to command the support and approbation of every patriotic and enlightened citizen.

It is with deep regret your committee are compelled to notice the absence, and want of patronage at this exhibition of some of the most important manufactures of the county, and we hope this may remind them that an institution which is sustained by others at some inconvenience for *their benefit* is worthy of their *future patronage* and encouragement.

We also regret that the limited means and resources of the Society may have compelled the committee to withold the highest premium in some cases of merit, which come but little if any thing short of the claims of more successful competitors, and where so many articles of evident superiority presented claims of decided merit—it may serve as a reasonable excuse for those who were *intent* upon doing *justice*, if errors of judgement may have led to some few unacceptable decisions in the distribution of premiums.

The axes and other tools exhibited by the "Collins Company" were such as to maintain the unrivalled superiority so long enjoyed over every thing of the kind, and having long since driven all *foreign* competition from the American markets, any mark of the Society's approbation can add nothing to their character, and no premium was asked for. We hope these goods will continue to add interest to future exhibitions as a source of pride and emulation to our mechanics.

The various and beautiful specimens of door trimmings—of locks, latches, screws, butts, plated and mineral knobs, and other articles of builder's hardware, of augers, bitts, saws, shears, table butts, and chisels, were all of superiour form and finish, and leave but little improvement to be expected or desired in these goods.

The ivory handled table cutlery from A. R. Moen, is of the most perfect and acceptable quality, and even excels any thing of the kind ever imported. The prices are about as low as the cost of Sheffield articles of similar kinds, without the charges of importation. The samples from John Russell & Co., and some others, were of a cheaper class of cutlery, but more generally used, and of the most beneficial and respectable character. A new pattern of bread cutter, or knife, from F. Roys & Co., of new form and fine finish, was much admired, as were some excellent rifles from J. S. Rice, who has them for sale.

Henry Wilkinson, exhibited a card of files, which were cut in the city of Hartford, and which would do honourable credit to any Sheffield house, showing, beyond any further doubt, the practicability of obtaining supplies of this indispensable article from our own mechanics.

Some horse shoes of improved form were offered by Walter Furlong, to whom we can refer all who want this article put on in the most workmanlike manner.

The plated squares and bevels, and box wood and ivory rules from Willis Thrall, are such as we have never seen excelled by either foreign or home production, and the low rates of his prices have tended to suspend importations. The smiths' sledges exhibited by Ripley & Co., and the anvils, vices, and screw plates, now made in this country, are much superiour to foreign articles of the kind, both in form and construction, and must soon entirely supersede them altogether; and this remark applies with equal force to our shovels, tongs, sad irons, kitchen utensils, and various other articles of heavy hardwares. The silver ware from the works of Seymour & Hollister, fully sustains the high reputation of this important branch of home industry.

The beautiful articles of plated and German silver ware from F. Curtiss, must meet the approbation and find a ready market with those who examine these new and improved goods. Some superb specimens of jewellery, of gold work, of fine, plain, and embroidered hair work, of Cologne water, soaps, inks, varnishes, and other chemical preparations, were exhibited, all showing much taste and skill in these several branches—every one of which might be extended an hundred fold within the county with perfect safety and profit to the proprietors.

Some elegant eight-day and thirty-hour clocks attracted the notice and admiration of visiters, and remind us of the high rank this branch of Connecticut industry has acquired, being exported in large quantities, and reaching successful rivalship and competition with all foreign manufactures of the kind, as all our productions are destined eventually to do, if our manufacturers and artists are properly protected and encouraged.

A few very fine articles of cabinet ware, and some highly finished window blinds were offered, which sustained the long, well-established reputation of our mechanics in these branches, in which skill and good work are faithfully united.

The articles of harness and saddlery, of gloves, mittens, boots, shoes, skins, and leather, were few but of good quality, and some fine specimens of parchment were shown by J. B. Crosby. Some hemp halters and fine cords and twine from Abner Church, were justly admired for good work.

The printed floor cloths from Geo. Burnham & Co., and the pilot duck from Messrs. Dobson, were both of superiour fabric and finish. The paper hangings from the works of Spencer & Co., were of beautiful designs and colours, and must soon supersede all French work in this market. The fine writing and billet paper from Hudson & Co., fully sustain the high reputatian of their works. The printing paper from D. Buck, Jr., is of good quality, and represents one of the most important manufacturing interests in our county. The tin ware and stoves from Wm. J. Phillips, and stoves from D. S. Brooks, were all excellent work, and useful and improved patterns. The gilt and composition portrait and picture frames from Bolles & Roberts were excellent specimens of fine taste and good work, as were the umbrellas from L. Sexton. The scouring brick from Allen Pettibone is much improved from the sample of last year, and is an important article of home work. The gilt and plated buttons from Messrs. Scovill, of Waterbury, were rich and splendid specimens of this important branch of business, and we are fully confirmed in the belief that no nation can beat Connecticut in the button trade. Some fine embossed silk buttons were offered, whose origin we could not learn.

Some new and improved, and beautifully mounted spectacles, from Messrs. Burt, attracted general notice and approbation, as did also the newly invented and highly recommended spiral spring truss, of Dr. Hard, while those exhibited by Isaac D. Bull, of *Hull's patent*, have stood the test of public approbation for a quarter of a century. The fine and delicately beautiful specimens of porcelain, exhibited by J. W. Bull and J. S. Gray, added to the interest of the Fair; and the rich and various patterns of lamps from the same gentleman, show in the most conclusive manner, the high and successful rank already taken by the American manufacturers of these expensive and splendid articles.

Some blank-book work from Edwin Hunt, a cane made entirely of paper, by Wm. C. Marshall, and a stand of canes and fishing rods from Allyn Goodwin, were all excellent of their kind.

The hats, caps, muffs, and furs, exceeded in numbers and quality any former show of these goods, and embraced so many fine articles, that the committee with all the aid they could command, found it difficult to satisfy either themselves or the exhibitors, in the distribution of the premiums. The carriage work of George Francis was of the first order, as were the sleighs exhibited by S. Parmelee and Edward Hayes. These articles combine improvement in style and finish, with comfort and good service. A few very fine articles of ready-made clothing, served to remind us of the extent and importance of this branch of home industry, and of the superiour skill of our artists in the trade.

Mr. R. Rockwell, of Newington, exhibited a specimen of hydraulic cement, or artificial stone, of the utmost importance to the public, for cisterns, sewers, drains, and various other purposes—being made as clean and sound as glass, and apparently as durable as granite, and at moderate cost. The committee would earnestly recommend the examination of specimens of this work at the garden grounds of E. W. Bull.

The samples of piece goods from the mills were not so numerous as could be desired; and while the manufacturers are so busy in filling orders for market, as to be unable or *unwilling* to send many specimens to us for exhibition, it is quite gratifying to find enough to satisfy us of the abundant ability and skill to produce ample supplies of fabrics of entire satisfactory qualities, as the woollen goods from Vernon, Stafford, Woodbury, Waterbury, and the prints and other cotton goods from Fall River and other towns, abundantly verify.

The exhibition of household productions, such as carpets, rugs, bed-quilts, counterpanes, blankets, flannels, linen, hosiery, shawls, yarns, threads, dresses, mats, embroidery, ottoman work, silk goods, shell work, and many other articles of comfort, elegance, and ornament, were in great profusion, and give ample and continued evidence of the industry, thrift, and good taste of the ladies, to whom we beg leave to tender our acknowledgements for their liberal and powerful assistance and influence in adding to the beauty and interest of these exhibitions.

PHILIP RIPLEY, Chairman.

October 5, 1844.

The last of these fairs which has been held, took place in October of this year. The Committee on Manufactures, on this occasion, make several judicious suggestions for appointing more committees, and dividing their labours, which are too onerous to be well executed, burthened as the committees now are with the inspection of too many articles. The Report on Manufactures, short as it is, would swell this article to too great a bulk; we must, therefore, state in general terms that there was, as on the two preceding occasions, handsome exhibitions, which are thus set forth in a supplement to the Hartford Courant, of October 25th, 1845.

" The articles of most interest among the productions of the loom, were several pieces of Brussels carpeting, from the Thompsonville Carpet Manufactory. Among them was a sample piece, of about 2,000 yards, ordered, as your committee were informed, for the White House at Washington; among the figures upon a rich dark ground, is seen the nation's emblem, the American spread eagle and stars, in gold colour, with a wreath in ruby and puce. The tufted or Turkey rugs, from the same establishment, it is believed, cannot be excelled in any part of the world. These, with the three-ply and super ingrain goods, were of themselves an exhibition worth a visit to the Hall. The other productions of the loom consisted mostly of splendid chintz prints, from the American Print Works; of superfine fashionable cassimeres, from the Phelps Manufacturing Company, at Broad Brook, and the New England Company, at Vernon; of bleached sheetings, from the York Mills, at Whitestown, and brown sheetings, from the celebrated James Steam Mills, at Newburyport, all presented by Howe, Mather, & Co., of this city, and finer or better goods, for the uses designed, it is believed, cannot be found; also, of very superiour satinetts, from the Frank Company, and the Leeds Manufacturing Company, at Vernon, presented by Day, Owen, & Co., of this city. It is apparent that under the present arrangement, manufacturers do not generally like to exhibit their goods; hence the fact that no broadcloths were presented, and so little competition in other manufactured cottons and woollens. Among the household productions, were exhibited three pieces, all wool carpeting, of superiour workmanship, made by Miss F. Olmsted, East Hartford, and J. W. Mills, of Hartford, and a large display of rag carpetings; one piece of which was manufactured by a worthy industrious man of this city during his leisure evenings; also a variety of cotton, wool, worsted, and silk hosiery, embroidered travelling bags, ottomans, stand and piano covers, aprons, &c., together with a few bedquilts, laces and edgings, splendid specimens of satin hats and other millinery, and a profusion of ornamental and useful articles; for all which we respectfully tender the ladies our thanks. Those who have not been noticed in the distribution of the Society's premiums, may be assured they have all contributed to the interest of the occasion. The committee must not omit to mention, in this connexion, the large glass case of fancy articles, presented by the ladies of the Insane Retreat, which furnished ample evidence of their *taste* and *skill*. To this the attention of the visiters was particularly directed. This intimation of their interest in our object, the committee hope will be followed on future occasions with additional evidences of their *ingenuity* and *sound judgement*. Also, the committee notice the glass model ship from a gentleman, a patient in the same institution; we are glad to see this evidence of a *rational* interest in our society.

The glass cases which occupied most of our tables were filled with valuable goods, generally of American manufacture—many of them were kindly presented by our merchants—not for premium, but to exhibit the skill of the manufacturer, and to inform the public where such goods can be purchased, as well as to add interest to the exhibition; for which they have our sincere thanks. Of these we ought to notice a case of silver and gold plated spectacles, plated knives and forks, table and tea spoons, and samples of wood screws, all of excellent quality, from the manufactory of F. Curtiss & Co., of this city.

A case of elegant silver ware from William Rogers & Co., of their own manufacture, of superiour workmanship.

A case of box rules and try and bevil squares, from Willis Thrall, of finest and best manufacture.

A case of trusses and pads, from I. D. Bull, of the most approved make.

A case of door knobs, locks, and other door trimmings, of superiour workmanship, from Kennedy & Bragaw, of Mattison, Russell, & Co's. manufacture.

A case of Collins Company's axes in variety, which are always objects of interest from the immense quantity manufactured, as well as from their superiour quality.

A case of fine wrought jewellery, from James Spencer, of this city, merited and received special attention, particularly from the ladies.

But few specimens of leather, or manufactures from this important article, were exhibited. Samples of very fine boots, from G. L. Ivers, received merited attention, as did cork-sole and other boots, from Andrew Brogan, of this city. It is hoped more attention will hereafter be given to this important branch of manufacture.

Samples of blank book binding, from Allen S. Stillman, showed that no better work can be found in any place, as did some dozen different specimens of the manner in which S. Andrus & Son, print and bind the Sacred Scriptures, as well as other books.

A superb piano forte, from the manufactory of J. H. Most, of this city, in splendid rosewood, shows that we need not go abroad for this elegant article.

The French sofa and chair, from Robins & Winship, of the style of Louis XIV., attracted the attention of all.

The sofa of very fine rosewood, from W. W. Roberts, was also much admired.

The silk and fur hats, and elegant muffs, from all the dealers in "Hatters' Row," in this city, showed the manufacture of those articles was carried on by those gentlemen in the greatest perfection.

The floor oil cloth, from George Burnham & Co's., and the paper hangings, from Spencer & Co., show that these articles are made in great perfection at their establishments in this city.

A case of hair brushes, perfumery, chemical and medicinal preparations, from E. W. Bull; all prepared and arranged in the very best manner, were a good specimen of the proprietor's establishment.

A case of gimps, cords, tassels, silk buttons, and other trimmings, from the manufactory of John Dean, of this city, showed that we need not go abroad for these rich and ornamental goods.

The two cases of gentlemen's furnishing goods from, Thomas T. Fisher and N. J. Brocket, of this city, added much to the interest of the clothing department.

The case of wigs and fancy hair work from R. H. Gardiner, of this city, merited and received special attention for the perfection exhibited in this delicate manufacture, as did, also, those exhibited by H. A. King and G. Miliano. Mr. Gardiner's specimen of Circassian cream for preserving and beautifying the hair, judging from its appearance, is a fine article for the use designed. Your committee hope those who believe a fine, glossy head of hair has "more glory than the grey head" or bald, will give it a trial.

The case of confectionary from Daniel Fish, of this city, was enough to "make any man's mouth water" for its sweet and elegant contents.

The splendid child's hand chariotee, presented by Henry King, of this city, is well fitted for Windsor Castle for Queen Victoria's children.

But to follow out a detailed description of all the objects of interest would violate our purpose of brevity, We must not, however, fail to notice the cooking and parlour stoves from D. S. Brooks, William Phillips, Thomas Roberts, and Gilberts & Cowles, which were samples of new and beautiful styles they have on sale, and which severally combine so many excellencies that the committee found it very difficult to decide on their comparative merits.

Also, the orthochronograph, an instrument recently invented and made by Sumner Smith, of this city, for ascertaining correct time, deserves a more full description than can here be given; suffice it to say, all watch makers and persons having care of public clocks should avail themselves of its use.

Also, a machine called "circular shears" for cutting all kinds of metal, invented and patented by William Bulkley and O. M. Inman, of Berlin. From the execution of its work, and simplicity of construction, it appeared to the committee to be very valuable; a great saving of hand labour, and perfectly accurate in its execution.

And, "last but not least," your committee refer with pleasure to the syphon pump, manufactured by Smart & King, of this city, but invented and presented by Erastus W. Ellsworth, of East Windsor, which is an instrument of great simplicity, self-acting, and will raise water in a constant stream to a height of more than fifty feet when placed on the crown of a syphon with eight to ten feet fall. This invention, your committee believe, will prove to be one of great utility, and deserves the Society's marked approbation. By order of Committee.

A. M. Collins, Chairman.

October 4, 1845.

BIOGRAPHICAL NOTICE OF EDWARD LIVINGSTON.

I proceed, in accordance with a time-honoured custom, to offer for preservation, a notice of one who, while living, was among our most distinguished citizens—of one who earned that distinction, not less by a long life of benevolence and virtue, than by the active exercise, through the various scenes of an eminent political and professional career, of a practical philosophy, which found in them all constant opportunities to promote the happiness and the prosperity of society. Without disparaging the quiet labours of the student, who, in the tranquility of his closet and under none but self-imposed restraints, elicits by patient reflection and sagacious reasoning, truths of enduring value; without depreciating that industry which in at least comparative seclusion from the more active and exciting duties of life, accumulates, step by step, facts that make clear the mysteries of nature and extend the boundaries of useful knowledge; without detracting from the merits and the praise of those who, in the pursuit of natural or exact science, and the elucidation of moral truths, more usually win, in the general estimation of the world, the praise and titles of philosophy—I may yet be permitted to say, that no one among our great men does philosophy claim more justly and truly as her son, than he who, in the busy engagements of public life, where he is stimulated by ambition, and occupied by objects that are supposed most strongly to absorb the feelings, if not to warp the judgement and the taste, yet blends with all his actions the love of science and the extension of truth, and applies that wisdom which springs only from knowledge and truth, to the affairs he is called upon to engage in or direct. The father of philosophy, the Stagyrite himself, was the minister and constant counsellor of his imperial pupil up to the moment when he crossed the Hellespont; Tully does not less preside as the acknowledged master of the Roman school, because he ceaselessly devoted himself, from the beginning to the close of life, to all the duties of a statesman and a lawyer; and though the fame of Bacon has been almost wrecked amid the quicksands of politics and office, from which he could not tear himself, he maintains his place as a philosopher next only to the two great masters of Greece and Rome. The records of our own country are not wanting in illustrations of the same truth; for who will venture to believe that the wreath which science binds around the brows of Franklin and of Jefferson has lost any of its freshness, because they devoted through life their active energies to political pursuits. Indeed, it seems to me that there is no class of her followers whom philosophy should more proudly recognise, than those who forget not her lessons, and retain her animating and generous spirit, through a career which too generally centres in individual success; and although a name like that of LIVINGSTON may be conspicuous, as it is, in the list of public men, it claims and should retain its place, with equal justice, in the ranks of those who, as philosophers, have contributed their share to the improvement and well-being of mankind.

Among the statesmen on whom the American people have conferred their honours with a just discrimination, no one has endeavoured with more consistent anxiety than Edward Livingston, to promote their welfare, by an application of the lights of moral and intellectual experience and truth, to their social and political institutions. With a mind clear, penetrating, and sagacious—with an industry that left unfinished no duty that he undertook—there were blended, from his earliest youth, serenity of temper, simplicity and cheerfulness of manners, an active benevolence, a clear, strong sense of right, a desire to promote in all things the good of others, and a willingness to forego his own interest and inclinations: so that in the relations of an advocate, a jurist, a legislator, and a statesman, he filled his part not more for his own enduring reputation, than for the benefit of those he served.

Born but a short time before the commencement of the Revolution, his youthful years were impregnated with the lessons best taught to an observing mind by the incidents that occurred around him. A brother of Robert R. Livingston, one of the committee who drafted the Declaration of Independence; a brother-in-law of Montgomery, who sealed with his blood the manifesto of patriotic resistance; filled with an insatiable love of study, by which he had mastered the stores of ancient and modern learning, and acquired a knowledge, far from inconsiderable, of many of the branches of abstract and natural science; he came into life just at the period when the institutions of his country assumed their settled form, imbued with the true spirit in which they were founded, animated with a desire to maintain them in purity and vigour, and possessing the talents and information which would enable him well to perform his part in whatever situation he might be thrown, as a private or a public man. Having adopted the legal profession, and established himself in the city of New York, he had gained before he reached the age of thirty, a high reputation for the extent of his acquirements as a jurist, and ability as an advocate. He already began to apply to his professional investigations the principles which he had accumulated in the wide range of his legal studies, and in some degree introduced into a practice necessarily founded upon and nearly confined to the English law, those illustrations which he had derived from the jurists of antiquity and of continental Europe, and which, at a subsequent period, were so conspicuously and advantageously exhibited in his public and professional labours. From these occupations he was to some extent withdrawn, for several years, by his election to Congress as a representative from the city of New York. That event took place in the year 1794. He was twice re-elected; and during the six years that he remained in Congress, he maintained a position equally distinguished by the ability that marked his views on all public questions, and the enlightened and candid spirit which he evinced in the discussions of a period when those differences were first developed, that presently assumed a character more ardent and limits more distinctly defined. United in political opinions with Madison, Gallatin, Giles, and Macon, he bore a conspicuous share in the debates on the public measures which they approved of or opposed; and he came at once to be considered as a leading member of the party to which he attached himself. Independently, however, of subjects more peculiarly political, he was early the advocate of various measures indicative of a wise and philanthropic spirit; and, among these, it is especially to his exertions that we owe the first endeavours to reform the criminal code of the United States, to protect or relieve American seamen left by accident or misfortune on foreign shores, and to promote the gradual increase of a navy sufficient to protect American commerce in remote seas. Though sincerely attached, from a strong conviction, to the particular political opinions which he advocated, he yet maintained them with characteristic liberality and deference to those from whom he differed; and no diversity of views of general policy could induce him to withhold his cordial support of such of their measures as he deemed calculated to sustain or protect his country's honour or rights.

Soon after withdrawing from Congress, he was elected Mayor of the city of New York, an office whose organization, as then constituted, required the exercise of important judicial as well as executive functions. He was also selected by Mr. Jefferson, when he became President, to fill the post for which his legal acquirements eminently fitted him, of Attorney of the United States for the State of New York. Within the period of his mayoralty, the city was afflicted by a desolating pestilence, during which his personal exertions and benevolence were fearlessly displayed at the risk of, and almost with the loss of his own life.

The Common Council, on his subsequent retirement from office, adverted, in an address unanimously adopted, to his admirable conduct in that trying emergency, and in the whole performance of his public duties. "Having been connected with you," they say, "in the discharge of the greater part of those duties, we cannot too warmly acknowledge the uniform politeness and courtesy of your manners. Inflexible in the preservation of order and in the execution of the laws, yet unbiassed by personal feeling or party prejudice, you have invariably exhibited dignity and firmness tempered by complacency. Even when differing from you in opinion, we have always had occasion to admire your rigid impartiality and the independence of your sentiments. This assemblage of qualities, so rarely combined, would suffice to command our highest respect and esteem; but it was reserved for a period of desolating calamity to display the extent of your philanthrophy and your disinterested devotion to the public welfare. During the scenes of affliction and dismay with which it lately pleased God to visit our city, we beheld with admiration and with the most grateful emotions, the unremitted zeal with which you sought out and relieved distress, and the alacrity with which you sacrificed your personal safety and comfort to that of the suffering poor, regardless of danger and toil, and disdaining all cold examination of the mere limits of official duty. When humanity called, you obeyed only the impulse of your generous heart. The anxiety and alarm which pervaded all ranks of citizens, during the dangerous illness which you contracted in administering to them relief, pronounced, in a language which flatterers cannot imitate nor envy distort, the ardour and sincerity of their affection. We must indeed be destitute of the feelings of men, if we could witness without regret the period which dissolves a connexion endeared by such ties. Yet you have so marked out the path of duty, that inferiour abilities, if guided by intentions as pure, may follow in the steps traced by your wisdom, and for a time preserve the impulse which your energy has produced."

It was just at the period when Mr. Livingston was receiving this gratifying testimonial of respect, on his retirement from office in New York, that the treaty, so ably negotiated by his brother in Paris, to secure the cession of Louisiana, was ratified by the Government of the United States. When that province became, shortly afterwards, a part of the American Union, Mr. Livingston resolved to remove there, and to connect his renewed professional career with the rising institutions of the new community. The enlarged nature of his earlier legal studies, enabling him at once to grasp the questions which arose out of the provisions of the civil law, as well as that of France and Spain, introduced there at different periods of colonial authority; his thorough knowledge of the jurisprudence then gradually prevailing in the United States, which would necessarily come to be incorporated to some extent with that of a territory now a part of them; and above all, his habit and power of careful discrimination of legal principles, looking to them according to their intrinsic excellence and fitness, neither in a spirit of unnecessary innovation nor an unwise adherence to mere precedent or usage; those qualities not only placed him at once, by general consent, at the head of his profession in Louisiana, but they enabled him to exercise a more than common influence in establishing a system of jurisprudence there, which in all respects may bear an advantageous comparison with that of any other of the States, and may claim over that of many of them a decided superiority.

Immediately on his arrival in Louisiana, Mr. Livingston perceived the necessity of prompt attention to this subject. The inhabitants had grown up and were living under a system of laws which were henceforth to be administered by judges, some of whom were ignorant of the languages in which they had been promulgated, and most of whom had been accustomed to judicial forms altogether different. On the other hand, the institutions of a free people were to supplant those of a monarchical and colonial government, and the individual citizen was to be called on constantly to perform a part personally active and efficient. It became, therefore, at once essential that, even without a change in the body of the laws, a mode of procedure fitted to the circumstances should be established without delay. The Legislature wisely resolved to commit this duty to the judgement and knowledge of jurists in whom the people might safely repose unlimited confidence, Mr. Livingston was selected to perform it, and with him was united a personal and professional friend of learning and ability, Mr. James Brown, afterwards a Senator in Congress from Louisiana, and Minister Plenipotentiary to France. While they discarded the fictions and technicalities of the English law, they avoided the prolixity so usual in the Spanish, and not infrequent in the French code. Their system is simple and intelligible; as well as calculated to prevent unnecessary expense and delay. It was adopted by the legislative council; it was introduced with the general approbation of the community; and for a series of years it has stood, with slight alteration, the test of trial and experience.

A more important task remained—the complete revision of the body of civil and criminal law, and its reduction into systematic codes. This was naturally and properly postponed until, by their admission into the Union as a sovereign State, the people could themselves act upon a measure so important to their feelings and welfare. After this event, with a just estimate for the wisdom and ability of Mr. Livingston, he was selected for the task by the Legislature; and no difference of opinion upon the political topics of the day withdrew their confidence from one who had identified his fame with the jurisprudence of Louisiana, as he had devoted his talents to her service. In the preparation of the civil code, Mr. Derbigny and Mr. Moreau were united with Mr. Livingston. The task proved to be one of great labour; the existing laws, which were familiar to the people, and therefore not without necessity to be abolished, consisted of provisions at once complicated and discordant; fragments of the Spanish ordinances frequently remained; the French law previous to the revolution had not been altogether superseded by the code of Napoleon; and, with American judges and the influx of American citizens, many of the provisions of the English common law had obtained a place. The arduous exertions of three years were required to reduce this mass into an intelligible system. In all its parts it received the co-operation of Mr. Livingston, and some of them, especially the title of "obligations," were exclusively his own. It met with a reception from the Legislature and people of the State far more favourable than could have been anticipated for such a measure; and, with the exception of the commercial code, to some provisions of which objection was made, it was promptly adopted, and still continues, with few changes in its general principles, to be the permanent law of the State.

By an act of the Legislature, the preparation of a system of criminal jurisprudence was confided to Mr. Livingston alone. He deeply felt the responsibility he assumed in undertaking such a trust; he knew that he would have to encounter strong prejudices, to oppose long-settled opinions, to exercise vigilance of forecast and distinctness of enactment, as to the objects for which the state of society, present and future, required him to provide. Two years after his appointment he presented to the Legislature a preliminary report, exhibiting the progress he had made, explaining the plan on which he proposed to execute the work, and giving some detached parts as specimens of it. These were unanimously approved, and he was requested by a vote to complete his labours. He accordingly proceeded with them. His best faculties, to use his own language, were faithfully and laboriously employed, under the direction of a religious desire to perform the duty entrusted to him in a manner that might realize, in some degree, the views of his fellow-citizens, for whose benefit it was designed. By assiduous exertion he completed the entire work in two years more; but it was scarcely finished, when all his labours were destroyed by an accident that, fortunately in its final result, only produced a remarkable instance of his temper and perseverance. Having received authority from the Legislature to submit it to them, when completed, for greater convenience, in a printed form, he had caused a fair copy of the whole work to be written for the use of the printer. The evening before it was to be delivered to him, he occupied himself till a late hour in comparing this copy with the original draft. He left them together when he went to bed, consoling himself with the pleasing thought that he had thus completed the labours of four years. Not long afterwards he was awakened by the cry of fire; he hastened to the room where his papers had been left, but not a vestige of either copy remained. They were totally consumed. Though stunned at first by the event, his industry and equanimity soon came to his aid; before the next day closed he had recommenced his task; the Legislature, at their following session, extended the period for its performance; and in two years more he presented to them his complete "System of Penal Law," in the shape in which we now see it. Prefixed to the system was a series of reports, reviewing, in a masterly manner, the whole science of penal jurisprudence; pointing out the objects to be sought for, the errors to be combatted, and the mode in which these could be done with most benefit to the criminal himself, and to the society whose laws he had violated. The system has not, it is believed, been yet finally acted upon, in its extended form, by the Legislature of Louisiana; but it does not, on this account, claim less justly the admiration of the philanthropist and jurist. It is a work worthy of the deep consideration of all communities. The beauty of its arrangement, the wisdom of its provisions, and the simplicity of its forms, have never been surpassed, probably never equalled in any similar work; and it is not without entire justice, that this admirable production has contributed, perhaps more than any other of his labours, to secure to Mr. Livingston that eminent place which he holds among those who are regarded, not merely as distinguished jurists, but as public benefactors.

It was by these acts, during an uninterrupted residence of many years, that Mr. Livingston identified himself with the State of which he became a citizen. His name will ever be cherished with grateful affection and respect in Louisiana. Nor was it by these acts alone. His eminent standing in his profession and in society, the active interest which he took in all the institutions of the State, and his services in the Legislature, of which he was occasionally a member, all united to make him not only an influential citizen, but one who was able, in innumerable ways, to contribute largely to the benefit of the community. His patient industry, his amenity of temper, the generosity of his disposition, made this at once easy and agreeable; and when, in the circumstances of the times, acts of more serious devotion to public duty were required, he was found amongst the foremost, ready and zealous to discharge them. The invasion of the British, at the close of the war, roused the patriotic spirit as it required the prompt devotion of the inhabitants. With but few regular troops, and almost entirely unprepared for such a conflict, they were obliged hastily to form themselves into an army to repel the invaders. Mr.

Livingston was among the foremost to do so. Instantly leaving his professional duties and all private occupations, he presented himself to General Jackson as soon as he arrived to take the command in Louisiana, and offered to place himself in any position where the general might regard his services as useful. He was selected as his aid-de-camp. He was by his side constantly throughout the period of hostilities, enjoyed his confidence in a marked degree, and at the close of the war received from him many evidences of that regard which was subsequently, and in another station, yet more signally evinced.

After an uninterrupted residence in Louisiana for twenty years, in which he had withdrawn from political pursuits, and devoted himself to his profession, and those congenial studies and labours that have been adverted to, Mr. Livingston determined to retire from the bar, and to revisit in New York the scenes of his earlier life and the connexions from whom he had been so long separated. This determination was the signal for a new mark of confidence from his adopted State. He was elected as a representative to Congress from Louisiana, an event which was followed in a few years by his choice as a senator. After his election, an enthusiastic address was presented to him by the City Council of New Orleans, in which they reviewed his various public services from the moment of his arrival in Louisiana, spoke of them in warm terms of approbation and gratitude, and expressed their confidence that his continuance in the national councils would be a guaranty of further exertions for their welfare and prosperity.

Mr. Livingston continued in Congress from 1823 to 1831. His advanced age prevented the same energetic participation in the public business which had formerly distinguished him, but he, nevertheless, originated several important measures, and not unfrequently engaged in debate. Those of his speeches which are preserved exhibit the clearness of perception and language, that various but unostentatious learning, that simplicity, dignity, and patriotism, which were characteristic of him. His views of public questions were expressed with firmness, but without asperity; he discussed, in a masterly manner, all those topics connected with a true construction of the constitution, and the extent and limitations of power assigned to the members of the confederacy and to the different departments of the government, which grew out of the controversy in South Carolina; the reputation which he had acquired in Congress so long before, and that which had been added to it by his eminent labours in a different sphere, suffered no diminution, but gained additional lustre by this return to a legislative career.

In the spring of 1831, the Department of State became vacant by the resignation of Mr. Van Buren. Mr. Livingston, who had retired a few months before, at the close of the session of Congress, to an estate which he possessed on the Hudson river, in the neighbourhood of his birthplace, was summoned by General Jackson to fill that elevated post. Totally unprepared for such an event, he hesitated for some time to accept it; with the modesty and simplicity which marked his character, he distrusted his abilities adequately to discharge its duties; and it was not without difficulty that the President obtained the services of one whose devotion to his country he had himself witnessed in far different scenes, and whose talents and virtues had received the approbation of his countrymen so often and in so many ways. Eminent as have been the men who have filled the post of Secretary of State, few have displayed the same fitness and ability to discharge its duties. His negotiations with foreign nations were very successful; and the documents connected with them, so far as they have been published, exhibit profound political wisdom and an enlightened spirit. The treaties that he formed are not more beneficial in their commercial stipulations, than they are made consonant, in their international provisions, with the feelings and improvement of the age. The missions which he originated or promoted, have opened new and important fields to American enterprise. The counsels of which, as the chief member of the administration, he was the advocate or adviser, were founded on views of the constitution carefully considered and ably vindicated.

The duties of such a place were, however, more arduous than Mr. Livingston, at his advanced age, was willing to continue long to discharge; and on the re-election of General Jackson, in 1833, he retired from his cabinet. At that time the negotiations with France, arising out of the treaty of 1830, which granted an indemnity to the United States for injuries done to American commerce, during the wars of Napoleon, were in a state of great perplexity. This was increased by the excitement which party contests in the French Legislature gave to the subject; and it was evident that the position of affairs demanded such a course on the part of the United States, as should protect their honour and maintain their rights, without allowing any thing not required by these just objects to interfere with or endanger that ancient friendship between the two nations which had its origin in the struggles of the Revolution. For such a service no man in the United States was more eminently fitted than Mr. Livingston. The distinguished public office from which he had just retired, the ability and consistency that had marked his course as a statesman, his sound views in regard to the institutions and policy of his country, made him a representative of American feelings, opinions, and determination, in whom his fellow-citizens had a perfect confidence. The known moderation of his character, his reputation as a jurist, especially on international questions, his long residence in Louisiana, whose inhabitants were connected with France by so many associations, his knowledge, which was more than commonly profound, of the language, literature, and history of that country, seemed to assure for him the most friendly reception there; and, as if to add to these circumstances of peculiar fitness for such a post, he had not long before been elected a member of the Institute of France, so that he was already enrolled among a body of distinguished Frenchmen, and connected with them by those ties which spring from mutual labours in the paths of science and of philanthrophy, and in the search of wisdom and truth. He was accordingly selected in the summer of 1833, by President Jackson, to fill the post of Minister Plenipotentiary to France; he accepted the appointment, embarked shortly after in the Delaware ship of the line, and arrived at Cherbourg in the month of September. He remained abroad until April, 1835, when he returned to the United States. Although at the time of his leaving France, the differences between the two countries had not been finally adjusted, and his departure was a step taken in consequence of what he deemed due to the honour of his own country, yet it was shortly afterwards followed by an acquiescence, on the part of the French Government, in the course which, under the instructions of President Jackson, he had firmly but temperately urged. His whole conduct, in circumstances that demanded, at every step, the exercise of an able judgement and an enlightened patriotism, served well to terminate his career as a public servant; and the official documents in which it is exhibited and indicated, must ever be regarded as among the most excellent of his own state papers, and will deservedly hold a conspicuous place in the history of our intercourse with foreign nations.

On his arrival in the United States he was hailed with cordial and enthusiastic approbation; not only did he receive, as he merited, the decided and warm approval of his government, but his fellow-citizens united to display in various ways their admiration of a conduct alike manly and patriotic, just and resolute. Public meetings, accompanied with various testimonials of respect, attended his progress to and from Washington; and he had the satisfaction to be assured, in the liveliest and most gratifying manner, that, in a position of unusual difficulty, he had greatly contributed at once to maintain the honour and just pride of his country, to overcome without yielding to the mistaken views of her ancient ally, and to preserve those peaceful relations which every circumstance that could exist in the intercourse of two such nations, made it desirable for them to maintain.

Mr. Livingston did not long survive his return to America. He immediately resumed his residence at his estate on the Hudson river, among his numerous family connexions; and the rest of his life was spent in scenes rendered equally attractive to him by their own natural beauty, and by the associations of his earlier years. He devoted himself with the greatest enjoyment to the pursuits of the country. His farm and his garden, with that social intercourse in which he always loved to indulge, afforded him constant employment; and it was in the midst of such occupations that his life was terminated, by a sudden illness, in the spring of 1836. He had just reached the age of seventy-two.

The private life of Mr. Livingston was a daily exhibition of domestic and social qualities which secure affection and diffuse happiness; his temper was serene and his disposition cheerful; his heart was keenly alive to all the impulses of affection and friendship; he could bear misfortune with equanimity, but to the close of life readily participated in the cheerful amusements of society; devotedly fond of study, and having untiring industry and a retentive memory, his mind was richly stored with all the knowledge that literature could impart; fond of scientific investigations, so far as his many engagements permitted him to pursue them, he readily gave his aid to those who engaged in them; actively benevolent, he was unceasing in his endeavours to promote every plan which he deemed conducive to the welfare or improvement of men. In his profession he was eminently distinguished; as an advocate and a lawyer, he stood by general consent in the highest rank; and his labours in those kindred branches of study and reflection, which were required in the preparation of the systems of civil and criminal law which he framed, gave him a reputation and secured to him honours and distinction, in his own and other countries, not surpassed by any of the jurists of his times. Among the statesmen of America, his place was no less eminent; his public speeches present, in every instance, striking views of the questions he discussed, and although the stations of trust to which he was elevated, place his official labours in comparison with some of the most illustrious of his countrymen, this has only served to display more clearly their intrinsic merit, and to secure for them an equal approbation. Recurring to the character and conduct of his life, reflecting on his virtues as a man and his services as a statesman, we cannot indulge in a wish more just, than that those who may be called on to fill the duties of a distinguished public trust, may ever blend with them the same anxious care to promote the welfare and happiness of their fellow men, and that they who shall give their hours of reflection to the development of knowledge or of moral truth, may be as prompt and anxious as he was, practically to apply it to the improvement of their country's institutions and the immediate benefit of society.

THE RELATIVE ADVANTAGES POSSESSED BY

ENGLAND, FRANCE, AND THE UNITED STATES,

AS MANUFACTURING NATIONS.

"The following table will give a comparative view of some of the most important advantages possessed by three of the principal manufacturing nations of the earth, to manufacture at the cheapest rates. The price of labour forms the most important particular; but the superiour skill of the labourers, and the improved machinery employed by them, must be taken into consideration, as well as the facilities of obtaining water or steam power. In respect to water power, the United States possess eminent advantages over most other countries. France abounds in fine mill streams; but in some of the principal manufacturing districts of that country, steam engines are from necessity frequently employed for operating machinery. In England the water power, although of inconsiderable amount compared to the steam power in use there, is highly improved wherever available in the manufacturing districts. It is probably attributable to the abundance and cheapness of water power, that the manufacturers of the United States are enabled to compete successfully with England and France in the production of such fabrics as require the application of a considerable moving force, notwithstanding the lower rates of labour in these two countries. With the several relative advantages possessed by England and by the United States, the rivalship between the two countries in manufactures is probably destined to continue long, and to be intensely interesting to the destinies of thousands of industrious artisans, when the manufacturers of the United States shall more generally extend their competition to supplying the markets of various foreign countries with some of the products of industry now furnished from England. Already has the competition been commenced and successfully maintained by the Americans, in supplying the markets of South America with coarse cottons, and with many other manufactured articles. Even the Hindoo, labouring at his loom for a few cents per day and subsisting upon a handful of rice for his daily fare, has been compelled to yield to the superiour skill and machinery of the American manufacturers, whose fabrics have already been transported for sale to the distant markets of Calcutta and Canton.

"This table will also give an idea of the relative comforts which the labourers in these several countries can enjoy as the fruits of their toil.

In France much less, and in the United States comparatively little, is exacted from the labourer by taxes upon the necessaries of life. For this reason a labourer in the United States, although he should receive only the same nominal amount of wages, possesses an advantage of more than twenty-five per cent. over a fellow-labourer in England, from the circumstance of the comparative cheapness of almost every article which he requires for his own use or for that of his family.

Comparative Table of the average Price of Labour in England, France, and the United States of America.

	ENGLAND.			FRANCE.			UNITED STATES.		
	s. d.		d. c.		francs.	cents.		d. c.	d. c.
A common day labourer earns per day,................	3 0	stg.=	74	about	2=	37 to 40	about		1 00
A carpenter,..	4 0	“	97	“	3 to 4	55 to 75	“		1 45
A mason,..	4 6	“	1 10	“	3½ to 4½	60 to 80	“		1 62
A farm labourer, (per month and found,).............	27 0	“	6 50	“		400 to 600	“	8 00 to	10 00
A servant maid, (per week and found,)............ ...	2 9	“	67	“		to	“	1 00 to	1 50
Best machine makers, forgers, &c., per day,..........	8 0	“	1 94	“		to	“	1 50 to	1 75
Ordinary “ “ “	4 6	“	1 10	“	5	to 92	“	1 25 to	1 42
Common mule spinners in cotton mills,..............	4 2	“	1 02	“		80 to 90	“	1 08 to	1 40
“ “ “ in woollen mills,.............	3 10	“	94	“		40 to 50	“		1 08
Weavers on hand looms,..............................	3 0	“	74	“		37 to 50	“		90
Boys 10 or 12 years of age do. per week,.............	5 6	“	1 30	“		85 to 100	“		1 50
Women in cotton mills per week, average......	8 0	“	1 96	“		148 to 200	“	2 00 to	3 00
“ in woollen mills “ “	8 0	“	1 96	“		to 150	“		2 50
In Holland a day labourer earns about 35 cents..........									
“ carpenters and and masons earn about 60 cents.									
“ ship carpenters earn about 80 cents,..........							New York.		Pittsburgh.
Average price of wheat per bushel in 1827,....... ...	7 4	“	1 79	“		to 117	96 cents.		49 cents.
Average price of good coals for steam engines per ton,..	9 0	“	2 20	“		600 to 700	700 “		106 “

This table was formed with great care from the result of personal inquiries made in the most important manufacturing districts of England and France, and the prices are taken at an average, as nearly as practicable. Since the year 1825, at which period these notes were taken, there have been considerable fluctuations in the price of labour in England, resulting probably in a general depreciation of wages. The value of the Spanish dollar is estimated at about 4 shillings 1¼ penny sterling, when the exchange between England and the United States is 10 per cent. in favour of the former country, making the shilling sterling about 24½ cents. The Spanish dollar is not a current circulating coin in England, and has no standard value in that country; but is bought and sold as bullion. By a statute law of the United States the Spanish dollar was made a standard coin for the currency of the country, and was arbitrarily rated at the value of 4s. 6d. sterling, for the purpose of assessing the duties upon all articles imported from England, and paying a certain impost upon the first cost. By thus underrating the value of the sterling currency, the American duties on English manufactures are in effect reduced about 10 per cent.

"From a view of the preceding table it appears that the average wages of persons engaged in manufacturing operations are nearly twenty per cent. cheaper in France than in England, and about eighteen or twenty per cent. cheaper in England than in the United States. Notwithstanding the difference in the prices paid for the same descriptions of labour in France and in England, judging from the observations which I have had opportunities of making, it would appear that the superiour skill of the English operatives, and the improved machinery generally employed by them, yield so much greater products as nearly to equalize the difference in the cost of labour; and the two countries may be, therefore, considered as possessing nearly equal facilities for manufacturing cheaply, so far as labour is concerned. For instance, one man with the aid of two girls and a boy I have seen operating with the greatest apparent ease about seven hundred mule spindles in England; whilst in the same month I have seen in Lille, in France, two Frenchmen exerting their utmost force to turn by their manual labour the crank of a single mule of only two hundred spindles, with a boy to assist in piecing the threads. Very many of the French mills are operated by horses, which may be frequently observed traversing in their monotonous circle beneath the vaulted arches of old gothic cathedrals and monasteries, which have been converted into manufactories. The clustered pillars and sculptured stone work of these venerable structures form a strange contrast with the bright colours of the painted machinery, the perpetual din of which scarcely allows the spectator to muse upon the change that has taken place since the period when the silence that reigned within these walls was only broken by the chant of the matin and vesper anthem. Although the machinery of the French mills is generally put in motion by water or steam power, and the most improved English machines are introduced into them, yet there is a most apparent difference in the manufacturing enterprise of the inhabitants of the two countries. In the best cotton mills near Rouen and Paris, intelligent English mechanics are generally to be found aiding or directing the operations. In those branches of business in which the taste of the artist contributes to the value as much as his skill, the French appear to excel their English neighbours. This is particularly observable in the articles of jewellery exhibited at the glittering shop windows of the Palais Royal, and also in various branches of the silk manufacture.

"In respect to general information the French and Flemish mechanics appear to be deficient; their enterprise and industry having been for many years paralyzed and interrupted by the continental wars of Europe. Since the arts of peace have gained the attention of the governments of Europe, and been sustained by them with fostering care, the mechanical arts have made more rapid advances. There still exists a languid indifference and want of information in relation to the progress of improvements made in other countries.*

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* On my way from Brussels to Harlem to view the national exhibition of the manufactures of Belgium, holden under the auspices of the king and honoured by his presiding at the distribution of the prizes, having accidentally fallen into company, in a diligence, with a Flemish artist on his way to the same place with some of his new machines, our conversation turned upon the subject of steam navigation, then lately introduced into that country. He inquired if there were any steamboats in America, and was surprised on being informed that they had been in successful operation there nearly twenty years. I took occasion to describe to him several American inventions,

"To the effects of a republican form of government existing in the United States it may be attributed (if the writer be not blinded by a partiality for the free institutions of his country) that a spirit of commercial enterprise and of manufacturing interest prevails, unequalled in any other country. There is in the United States no ennobled order of men and lofty pride of ancestry, to render the manufacturer or merchant half ashamed of his profession; and no burthensome system of taxation to depress the mechanic, and to circumscribe his scanty means to gaining a mere subsistence. From the habits of early life and the diffusion of knowledge by means of free schools, there exists generally among the mechanics of New England, a vivacity in inquiring into the first principles of the science to which they are practically devoted. They thus frequently acquire a theoretical knowledge of the processes of the useful arts, which the English labourers may commonly be found to possess after a long apprenticeship and life of patient toil. For this reason the American mechanic appears generally more prone to invent new plans and machines than to operate upon old ones in the most perfect manner. The English mechanic, on the contrary, confining his attention simply to the immediate performance of the process of art to which he is habituated from early youth, acquires wonderful dexterity and skill. One of these labourers was pointed out to me by the proprietor of an English manufactory as having occupied for nearly thirty years the same spot by the side of his machine, or rather machines—the materials of brass and steel of a succession of them, having failed and worn out under his inspection. The constant tread of his feet during this long period had channelled furrows in the very floors, and every motion of his body appeared almost as mechanical as if he had become a machine himself. Without information on any other branch of business, such a man, when thrown out of his accustomed employment by the vicissitudes which must at times attend the affairs of a manufacturing as well as of a commercial people, is usually left helpless and destitute, unable to turn his hand to other avocations.

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among others the machine for cutting and heading nails, which were completely finished and fall off from the engine as fast as one can count them. The machine for making weavers' reeds or slaies, seemed to strike attention as a wonderful invention, whereby the mechanism is made to draw in the flattened wire from a reel, to insert it between the side pieces, to cut it off at the proper length, and finally to bind each dent firmly in its place with tarred twine, accomplishing the whole operation without the assistance of the attendant, in a more perfect manner than can be performed by the most skilful hand. Although he possessed a good share of intelligence, the complicated operations of these machines, performing processes which he supposed could only be brought about by manual dexterity, appeared to him incomprehensible. But when I proceeded to describe Blanchard's lathe, in which gun stocks and shoe lasts are turned exactly to a pattern, his belief seemed somewhat wavering, and on continuing to give him a description of Whitmore's celebrated card machine, which draws off the card wire from the reel, cuts it off at a proper length for the teeth, bends it into the form of a staple, punctures the holes in the leather, and inserts the staples of wire into the punctures, and finally crooks the teeth to the desired form—performing all these operations with regularity without the assistance of the human hand to guide or direct it, the credulity of my travelling companion in the diligence would extend no further, and he evidently began to doubt all the statements I had been making to him, manifesting at the same time some little feeling of irritation at what he appeared to consider an attempt to impose upon him such marvellous accounts. Uttering an emphatic humph! he threw himself back into the corner of the diligence, and declined further conversation during the remainder of our ride upon the subject of mechanics and of the improvements made in Flemish manufactures.

If a New England man does not succeed in one branch of business, he may commonly be found readily essaying some other; even sometimes officiating in the profession of the law or of medicine, after commencing his career with the labours of the plane or anvil. It is undoubtedly true that in very many instances this versatility is attended with a profitless result, as in the present state of the arts and sciences a long period of assiduous labour is required to attain skill and experience in any branch of business. Although many valuable and ingenious inventions in the useful arts have originated in the United States, from which the old* as well as the new world have derived vast benefits, yet it cannot be denied that an incalculable loss of labour and expense in useless experiments has been the result to most of those who have been allured by the delusive search for new inventions and patent rights to deviate from the beaten path. These gropings in the dark for mechanical improvements can in no way be so successfully prevented as by opening the eyes of the mechanic, and causing him to view and examine his schemes more perfectly by the light of science. Some of the extensive manufacturers of Leeds, with a most commendable liberality, have formed small circulating libraries for the use of the persons engaged in their establishments, thus furnishing them with the means of becoming both more intelligent and more virtuous. For this purpose numerous mechanics' libraries have also been instituted throughout England, and the scholars and statesmen of that great and powerful country, with a philanthropy for which "ages yet unborn shall call them blessed," have lent the sanction of their names and the vigorous support of their talents for the general diffusion of useful knowledge. This has been effected, too, on terms so completely within the means of almost every labourer, that it can scarcely be said of the mechanics of the present day, in the words of Gray,

> "That knowledge to their eyes her ample page,
> Rich with the spoils of time, did ne'er unroll."

"England possesses a decided superiority over France and most of the United States in the abundance of coal, and in the consequent advantages afforded by steam power. Notwithstanding, however, the abundance of coal found in England, and the very general use of the steam engine, water power is highly valued in all the manufacturing districts, and mills are erected on streams, which in many instances are sufficient to turn the water wheels, and operate the machinery attached to them, during only a part of the year. Among the mountains of Scotland, however, I noticed numerous fine mill streams which remained unimproved. In Manchester, where coals are as cheap as in most of the manufacturing districts of England, the total cost of steam power, including all charges, amounts to about £20 per year for each horse power, or at the current value of the Spanish dollar, to very near one hundred dollars per annum, as Mr. J. Dyer, of Manchester, stated to me. The opportunities of obtaining information on this subject possessed by this enterprising American, from a long residence in Manchester, and from being engaged in an extensive branch of manufactures there, has probably enabled him to ascertain this fact with accuracy. The fuel forming the principal part of the expense of operating steam engines, by calculating the cost of coals in England and the United States, a comparative estimate may be formed of the expenses attending the operation of a steam engine in each of the two countries with a tolerable degree of correctness. In the manufacturing districts of France, near Rouen, where the most extensive cotton and woollen mills are located, the coals used are brought principally from the mines at Charleroi, and are nearly as dear as in the United States. The coals exported from England to the United States are of a superiour quality to those ordinarily consumed for manufacturing purposes, and sell at an advanced price in Liverpool of nearly four shillings per ton, or from fourteen to fifteen shillings sterling per ton. Virginia coal is about equal in quality to the common English coal for the purpose of operating steam engines, and costs on the seaboard of the Northern and Eastern States three times as much as the coals used in Manchester for steam engines. The daily wages of a fireman and good engineer are nearly as high in England as in the United States. The actual expense necessary for operating a steam engine in England, all other things being equal, may, therefore, be estimated at rather more than two-fifths of what it is on the sea board of the Middle and Eastern States, when coals are used for fuel; while at Pittsburg, on the contrary, from the wonderful abundance of coal, steam power is actually available at about three-fourths of the expense required in England. Pine wood seems to be preferred in the United States as fuel for steamboats, for producing a ready and intense heat without being attended with disagreeable sulphureous vapours during combustion.

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* Of late years England has received more benefits from adopting improvements in the useful arts from the United States, than she has imparted; and the respectful attention of the inhabitants of that country, "illustrious in arts and arms," is now bestowed on the inventive genius of Americans.

PRESENT STATE OF THE IRON TRADE.

MASTERS AND MEN.

From the Mining Journal, Oct. 25, 1845.

The present state of the metal trade excites great interest throughout the country, and every movement of the iron masters is watched most closely, as all the contractors for railways are expecting a rise in this important article, to enable them to carry out their projects. A very important sale took place last week at the Horsley iron works, which in consequence of the recent advance in iron was very fully attended, and a sharp competition ensued. Old castings were freely bought at £4 7 6 to £4 10, and pig iron £4 15.

A special meeting of nail masters was, also, held at Dudley last week, to take into consideration the present state of trade, and the advance required by the men who have struck for higher wages, finding that their masters are making good profits; their demand is a rise of ten per cent. Although there are in this district from thirty to forty nail masters, only eleven presented themselves at the hotel, and it was highly satisfactory to see the unanimous feeling that existed on the point of justice that they should have the claim granted of 20s. in the £, and not subject them to an abatement of ten per cent., while they themselves were "feathering their nests."

There will be an adjourned meeting to give the absentee masters an opportunity to deliver their opinions on the subject; but so general is the feeling in favour of the first request, that the "*strike*" may be said only to be nominal, as the greater number of the men in Dudley and vicinity have recommenced work on the stipulated or conceded terms, and as the masters find they cannot do without the men, nor the men without the masters—the interest of both being so united at this present critical moment that a disunion would be fatal to both, as the demand for iron is so greatly on the increase for railway contracts, and that at very high prices, and the men naturally consider that they ought to have a little share in the iron harvest. In Birmingham the great impetus exists in the metal market. In the price of copper, an advance of £4 10 per ton has been agreed to at a trade meeting. In tin there has been an advance of £3 per ton—but the supply on hand is rather limited and buyers are obliged to submit. The price of tin plates remains steady at present—but an advance is determined upon, very shortly. Nickel and Bismuth are steady.

It is confidently rumoured that the colliers of South Staffordshire are going to commence another campaign for high wages. The thick colliers receive at present 4s. 6d., and the thin coal men 3s. 6d. per day, but they want 6d. more, which is equal to an increase of 5s. per ton on the manufacture of iron.

The fact is, that the men, seeing that their masters are reaping good profits, will have a trifle too. A week or two will make a great change in our mining operations, as the demands are so great that all hands must be put to the wheel.

RISE IN THE PRICE OF IRON IN FRANCE.

From the same.

The quotations of the price of iron in France will no doubt be acceptable, as it will prove that great difficulty exists on the opposite side of the Channel, to meet the demands making for the railway contracts now in progress, and there is every probability of a further rise, when the adjudications have been granted to the directors of the new lines, by the minister of public works.

It is not, therefore, at all improbable, that ere long France will be obliged to import a great portion of her rails and "*materiel*" from this country, and it is hinted a Royal ordinance will be issued allowing the importation of foreign iron, either duty free, or at a very moderate rate, when the exigency arrives, so as not to retard the carrying out of the railway speculations. The following is the price of iron at St. Dizier, per 100 killogrammes (two cwt.;) rock iron made by wood, £17 5; wrought iron made by coal, £17 to £18; other sorts, from £7 to £16.

The price of iron in the Dordogne has experienced a trifling rise, which is looked upon by the iron masters as the forerunner for large contracts, as there are some very extensive demands made for the railways now constructing, which not only gives plenty of work, but they choose a better description of ore in the making of iron than formerly, so as to keep the foreign out of the market, if possible.

From the same, Nov. 1, 1845.

In the early part of the week there was an unusually dull appearance in the market for pig iron, and prices appeared on the decline, which had the effect of bringing forward a large number of buyers, who eagerly took all the parcels offered in the Clyde, at 85s. This fact is a pretty good proof that as far as trade alone is concerned there was no real cause for the decline; the price quoted in Wales was 95s. to 100s., but makers remain firm, and will not sell on these terms, in consequence of the extensive orders on hand, which cannot be executed, in many cases, much within the year 1846. It is quite evident there is a class of men in the market who are trying to lower prices by unfounded reports, and on succeeding, buy largely, again endeavour to rally the market, and immediately realize. The time we trust has now, however, gone by, when these tricks can prevail any longer. The demand for manufactured iron, has been excessive, and is likely to continue so for an indefinite time, owing to the demand for railway iron.

From the same.

From January, 1844, to the present time, the railways of which the acts are passed, and which are in the course of construction, amount to fifty-six millions of pounds sterling. Railways projected in 1845 to the 8th October, 413 millions—additional lines from the 8th to 15th October, 20½ millions. Capital of fifty-six lines, not included in the above sum, at the same rate, 56 millions. Total of British railways in progress and projected, 612½ millions. Foreign railways, to the 8th of October, forty-one lines, of which the capital of 39 ascertained, amount to 79¼ millions, the two making a total of £692,000,000, on which the deposites may be thus stated: Ten per cent. on the lines passed independent of calls, 5¼ millions; 5 per cent. on the bills of last session running over, of which most are now increased to 10 per cent., 3½ millions. 10 per cent. on the projections of 1845 to October 15, taking foreign railways only at the same rate, 69½ millions; total deposites paid, or to be provided, 78½ millions. The following is a *resume* of these periods, which will show the average:

	Home Schemes.	Foreign.	Total.	Paid up and deposites.
1824 and 1825,............	£156,778,630	£48,159,000	£204,967,630	£35,014,698
1834 and 1837,............	129,073,700	21,175,000	150,248,700	22,616,670
1844, up to Nov., 1845,...	612,262,200	79,250,000	691,512,200	78,448,420

The quantity of bullion at the Bank of England, in that period, has varied from £4½ millions to £16½ millions. The *premiums* upon undertakings which have, as yet, not received an act of Parliament, cannot be estimated at less than 40 millions, which at this moment figures as increased wealth. It may surprise many how all this money can be possessed by so small an island as Great Britain, which is not only looked upon by all foreigners, as the iron country, but the land of gold. It is to us that all other powers come for their loans, and British speculative enterprise has risen a new era throughout the whole world, from the northern to the southern pole, and from east to west, propagating liberty, industry, and civilization among mankind.

From the same.

The effect of our railway speculation in France begins already to show itself. It is stated that money is not only becoming scarce in Paris, but at Lille, Lyons, Bordeaux, Toulouse, Nantes, and Rouen. Nearly everywhere the bankers' coffers are empty; not only have many of the capitalists been and demanded their deposites to be returned, but the great evil is, that the bankers themselves find a greater profit in speculating in railway shares, than confining themselves to their ordinary occupations. There are several discount houses in Paris, which formerly carried on an extensive discount business, but in consequence of the infatuation that now prevails throughout France for railway communication, they have nearly discontinued their discount business, as railways, and nothing but railways, appear to have captivated their brains and purses.

The same may be said of this country, where a heedless mania has for some time existed in this species of speculation; but Englishmen are more considerate than our mercurial friends on the other side of the channel, and they now consider twice before they jump once, whilst the Frenchman only looks at the present alluring prospects, never looking forward to the future. The great railway undertakings in this country have caused a stimulative enterprise, not only in France, Belgium, Holland, Germany, Russia, Italy, Spain, and Portugal, and all over Europe, but in the West and East Indies, the Havana, Mexico, the whole of South America, and the Brazils. The great advantage of railways, as well as steam navigation, is not only the benefits they afford to commerce, by a speedy transit, but the grand enterprising energy it gives for the exploring and working of the iron ores, and coal beds, which abound in England, Ireland, Wales, France, the northern and southern ports of Europe, but in South America and far distant India. The nineteenth century may be justly called, if not the "Golden Age," at least the "Iron Age"; the inventive intellect of man has never before displayed its wonderful powers as it has done within the last half century, or more properly speaking, quarter of a century; and what would the last generation have thought, of the idea of having locomotive power, from one end of the the United Kingdom to the other, from the most northern to the southern points of Europe, Asia, Africa, and America.

One of the great benefits that the introduction of railways will afford in Spain, the Havana, Cuba, Mexico, and South America, are the facilities it will confer to mining operations, which have hitherto been very much confined, and often proved failures, in consequence of the exhorbitant expenses that are incurred in conveying the mineral ore either to the coast for exportation, or the smelting establishments at some distance, as the mines, technically speaking, like the miners, are distinct from all other terrestrial parts of the globe, in solitary passes, where the sun seldom or never shines. In France, Belgium, Germany, and Russia, the introduction of railways has had already the most beneficial effect in increasing mining enterprise; high furnaces are now in full blast in every mining district; the iron, coal, and other mines, that had been abandoned, are now in full work, giving occupation to thousands of industrious men and their families.

In England, Wales, and Scotland, the rapid progress of railways and steam navigation, iron ship building, &c.—a chimera of half a century ago—has given an impetus to the most important mining operations; and we look forward with pleasure to the vast benefits that Ireland is likely to derive from the great railway speculations now being carried out from one end to the other of that isolated and depressed country, which will not only throw open an extensive traffic for her rich agricultural produce, but will be the means of creating a new era for working the valuable iron, copper, and other ores, and coal beds, with which she abounds, that have hitherto been lost to the industry of man, and more particularly to her hardy population. We hope the day is not far distant when she will become a flourishing portion of the British Empire.

From the same.

PRICE CURRENT OF IRON.—London, Oct. 31, 1845.

Iron Bars, Wales, per ton,		£0 0 0	£9 5 0
" London,	"	9 15 0	10 0 0
Scotch Pig, Clyde,	"	4 5 0	4 10 -
Rails,	"		12 0 0
Bars, Staffordshire,	"	11 0 0	11 10 0

From the same.

SALE OF AMERICAN COPPER ORE.

At the public sale of copper ore, at Swansea, (Wales,) on 22nd Oct., 1845, we perceive ninety-nine tons of ore, twelve and one quarter per cent. product, and ninety-seven ton, nine and one-eighth product, realizing £9 10 and £7 3 per ton were sold, imported there from the mines in Pennsylvania—having been shipped at New York.

There are, also, two other parcels of 100 and of 76 tons, Pennsylvania copper, advertised to be sold in Swansea, Nov. 5, 1845.

From the Glasgow Gazette.

Blast Furnaces and Weekly Produce of Pig Iron in Scotland.

	Building.	Built.	In Blast.	Weekly Produce.
Gartsherrie,	0	16	15	1,700
Dundyvan,	0	9	9	1,000
Monkland,	2	7	7	850
Calder,	0	8	6	660
Govan,	0	5	5	650
Langloan,	1	5	5	650
Cornbroe,	0	6	5	560
Clyde,	0	6	5	540
Coltness,	1	5	5	600
Summerlee,	0	5	4	420
Glengarnock,	1	4	4	520
Shotts,	1	3	3	800
Muirkirk,	1	3	3	250
Carron,	0	3	3	240
Devon,	0	3	2	160
Blair,	4	3	3	330
Castlehill,	0	2	2	200
Omoa,	1	3	2	180
Garscube,	0	2	1	100
Bonaw,	0	1	1	50
	12	99	90	9,960

At the new works in Ayrshire, Fife, and Bo'ness, there are 16 new furnaces going up, and about as many proposed, and, from the activity with which operations are being carried on, some of them will be in blast in the course of a few months.

In the course of nine or twelve months, a great increase in home consumption may be expected; but looking at the stocks on hand here, which, from 80,000 tons in January, have reached to double that amount now, namely, 160,000 tons, being an increase on an average of 4,000 tons per week, and the ratio of increase greater now than ever; and, taking into account the preparations which are going on to extend the manufacture 25 or 30 per cent. still farther, it must be apparent that, even with all the increase of consumption which can reasonably be expected, the produce, independent of any accumulation of stock which may take place between that and the present time, will be more than ample enough to meet it.

PROGRESS AND HISTORY OF A POUND OF COTTON.

We extract from a recent English newspaper the following account of the progress of a pound of cotton, and ask our brethren of the South to give it their candid and close attention.

It would be quite interesting to know how many pounds of cotton pursue such a course of travel, and become so rich, and so exalted in character. The nature of our work prevents our indulging in fanciful thoughts, else might we pursue the history of this well educated scion of "gossypium," and imagine it exalted to the enviable situation of some fair lady's fairer bosom—there from its gossamer texture to tell the tale, by its undulations, of what was passing beneath its graceful folds—to speak of the light heart that bounds with joy, or the oppressed spirit borne down with some secret grief; but such topics are forbidden to us, and we can only treat of it mathematically, and wonder at the talismanic power of human labour and art, that can thus convert a single pound of a common vegetable substance into an article of clothing, of more than double the value of the finest gold—and yet this is nothing to what the magic of art can do with the rude and coarse metal of iron, which, when converted into the hair spring of a watch, is increased not merely as this pound of cotton, into two thousand times its original value—but it is multiplied to the enormous extent of fifty thousand fold.

PROGRESS OF A POUND OF COTTON.

The following account of the adventures of a pound of manufactured cotton, will show the importance of manufactures to a country in a conspicuous manner: There was sent off for London, lately, from Glasgow, a small piece of muslin, about one pound weight, the history of which is as follows: The cotton came from the United States to London; from London it went to Manchester, where it was manufactured into yarn; from Manchester it was sent to Paisley, where it was woven; it was sent to Ayrshire next, where it was tamboured; afterwards it was conveyed to Dumbarton, where it was handsewed, and again returned to Paisley, when it was sent to a distant part of the county of Renfrew to be bleached, and was returned to Paisley; then sent per coach to London. It is difficult precisely to ascertain the time taken to bring this article to market, but it may be pretty near the truth to reckon it two years from the time it was packed in America till its cloth arrived at the merchant's warehouse in London, whither it must have been conveyed 3,000 miles by sea, and 920 by land, and contributed towards the support of no less than

150 people, whose services were necessary in the carriage and manufacture of this small quantity of cotton, and by which the value has been advanced 2,000 per cent. What is said of this piece, is descriptive of no inconsiderable part of the trade.

A GLANCE AT THE OLD WORLD.

The arrival of the British steamer has again put us in possession of our usual files. We find in the English periodicals for November a variety of interesting items.

SCIENTIFIC.

We notice a paper in the Edinburgh Philosophical Magazine, by Messrs. Schlossberger & Kemp, two eminent chemists of Edinburgh, on the proportion of nitrogen contained in alimentary substances taken from the organic kingdoms, as a comparative measure of their nutritive power. The object of the article is to show that "those substances which in the strict sense of the word are capable of being transformed into blood and animal tissue, according to our present knowledge," may be estimated in capability for those purposes by the quantity of nitrogen they contain. This theory has been followed up by some physiologists with a very minute analysis of the vegetable world; but the article alluded to, continues its researches into the animal kingdom, and contains a great many curious speculations on the subject. We have with it a table of the comparative proportion of nutriment in our organic elements.

A question of science bearing on agriculture has been determined by William Sharp, Esq., of the Royal Society. It has been again and again attempted to ascertain with exactness what quantity of inorganic or incombustible matter is removed from the soil by the seeds of a crop of wheat. The experiments hitherto attempted have failed to obtain a perfectly accurate result, from some difficulties attending the manipulation in the analysis. Mr. Sharp was able to ascertain pretty accurately that the quantity of inorganic matter was in proportion to the specific gravity of the grain, that is, the weight per bushel. He drew the conclusion that the mean amount of inorganic matter removed from the soil by the grain of a crop of wheat is exactly one pound per acre.

Dr. John Davy has been endeavouring to obtain some precise information as to the temperature of the human body. The indication given by a thermometer placed under the tongue, which is the usual test, is not constant. Dr. Davy considers his subject under seven different heads, and he assumes this to be the fact, that the temperature of man is constantly fluctuating within a certain limit, regularly during the twenty-four hours, and irregularly according to the operation of disturbing circumstances.

The botany of the island of Java has been recently illustrated by a celebrated naturalist, Dr. Junghuhn, whose journey has appeared in the Botanic Gazette of August 29th last. The descriptions are highly interesting.

We find the antiquarian geologists still much engaged in their inquiries after fossil remains. In the gypsum formation of Aix, in France, a M.

Coquand has discovered a reptile belonging to the order of Batracians and, also, a butterfly, in good preservation.

The people of Vienna are in a high state of excitement with the success of a new composing machine for printers. It is said to have met with entire success, and is described as being in shape like a piano, or harpsichord, containing two rows of keys, 121 in number, one of 60 and the other of 61. An ordinary compositor may with this machine set 21,600 types per hour, and the canals of type can be multiplied to any extent required for quick work. The efficacy of the invention was subjected to a most rigorous examination by a scientific committee, and the result is, that it is now in use in the Imperial Printing Office, and has attained great renown in Germany, from the fact that very splendid editions of German publications have been recently printed through its means. We confess we are surprised at this arrangement. All the attempts to construct a composing machine hitherto have been deficient in some particular, and, therefore, not generally adopted, or even approved; this one of Vienna appears to have been entirely successful. We presume it will not be long before we shall have a reproduction of this wonder in our own country. Its happy effect will be still more to reduce the cost of printing, and to make books and papers so cheap as to be accessible to the very poorest of the people.

We cannot help noticing the immediate and practical uses to which scientific researches contribute their results. We cannot take up any of the leading periodicals before us without being struck with the fact. Besides this, new classes of employments and amusements spring up as a natural consequence. The horizon of the mind's eye is enlarged, and new objects come within the range of vision. Let us glance for a moment at a single page of one of these periodicals.

We find the printer and the engraver offering beautiful and cheap editions of new works, one of which is a complete body of music adapted to the growing demand for music among all classes of the community, making in all 936 pages. This work could only be accomplished by the skill of scientific and practical men. The next to it, is a notice of the following articles being on sale, the very enumeration of which shows where the tastes of this age are tending, and how different a world is growing up around us from that which we have inhabited. "Photographic cameras with achromatic lenses, parallel mirrors and prisms, iodizing and bromine plans, polishing blocks and buffs, skeleton frames to contain pictures, energiatype, photogenic and iodized paper." We next find that "leather is coming into use in a very novel form. The maxim at which we smile, "there is nothing like leather," is about to assume a stern reality. We perceive that its uses are various and novel, and under the head of English patent relievo leather, ornament and carton toile, we are offered, hangings of rooms, screens, door panels, cornices, friezes, arabesques, pilasters, and mouldings, busts, medallions, pateras and centres for ceilings, caryatides, consoles and brackets, foliage, fruit and flower borders, book and album covers, music, drawing and manuscript boxes, picture and looking glass frames, book cases and cabinets, sideboards and ornamental furniture, after many hundred different designs, and representing the most elaborate carvings in alto and bas relief, of every style and period of decoration.

Cast iron lighthouses are becoming favourites abroad. We find the following particulars in relation to two which have been constructed in England, and afterwards sent out to Jamaica and Bermuda:

Particulars.	Jamaica Light.	Bermuda.
Diameter at base,	18½ feet.	24 feet.
" at top where under gallery,	11 "	14 "
Height of the above,	86½ "	105.9 feet.
" of cast iron light room on top,	5 "	7 "
" of glass,	5 "	10 "
" of roofing and cowl,	5 "	9 "
Lightning rod still higher,		
Price of tower, lanterns, all fitted in London,	£3,500	£5,500
Character of light,	reflectors.	refractors.

We have have had one constructed in this city by an iron founder, of the character of a reflector, which was said to be a fine piece of work. The iron business of this country is getting to be of vast consequence, and there is no doubt that its whole energies will be tasked to meet the demands made upon it in various forms, not the least of which will be that of iron lighthouses.

We have seen a very amusing yet valuable account of the African guano trade, which forms an appendix to the Nautical Magazine. It deserves the attention of those interested in the subject and would be a valuable article for republication in our commercial prints.

The Royal Polytechnic Institution of London, a most valuable school and museum of practical art, is now busily engaged in getting up classes to be instructed in steam navigation and railway engine-driving. It has been contemplated to establish a similar institution in this city. The writer of this, some months ago, proposed in a journal which he edited, the formation of a Polytechnic institute upon a plan efficient, simple, and independent. The project met with approbation, and will probably be carried out.

A scientific commission is about to proceed from France to explore the ruins of Palenque.

We have seen, in some of the newspapers, an account of the discovery of a diamond mine at Bahia, Brazil. A foreign journal gives the following particulars:

"The mine is situated 80 leagues from the capital, and is of inexhaustible wealth.. It lies in a desert place, which was totally uninhabited and is scarcely accessible. The discovery was made by accident; but as soon as it was known, a crowd of emigrants from all parts of Brazil, amounting to 8000 or 9000 souls, rushed to the spot, and pitched their tents there. One English house alone has exported a million of dollars worth of the products of the mine."

M. Sedille, an eminent surgeon of Strasburgh, has communicated to the Paris Academy of Sciences the fact, that he has been very successful in treating cancer, on the anaplastic system.

The principles of Biology and Phytology, are the subjects of some of the lectures at the New College, London. One of the faults of modern science is its tendency to extend its nomenclature beyond the bounds of popular intelligence. Biology seems to be the science of the common properties of living beings, and the laws of their geographical and physical distribution. Phytology is the science of the structure, functions, and classification of animals.

Professor Potter, of the London University, has been delivering a splendid lecture on the aurora borealis. All the recorded appearances can be referred to one of five forms, four of which have been described by Dr. Dalton.

1. A horizontal light in the magnetic north, like the morning aurora, or break of day, and hence the name invented by Gassendi, aurora borealis.

2. Five slender beams, well defined, of dense light, seldom continuing at rest so long as one minute, but more frequently having a quick lateral motion; their direction being always parallel to the dipping needle.

3. Flashes pointing upwards like the beams which they always succeed, momentary, with no lateral motion, but repeated many times in a minute, broader and more diffuse than the beams; they sometimes fluctuate, but continue for hours.

4. Arches nearly in the form of rainbows.

5. Nebulous, irregular, masses and bands.

These five forms are modified by circumstances. The light is sometimes coloured, chiefly carmine, red, and pale green. The beams are now believed to be parallel to the dipping needle, and hence, when they cover a large part of the sky, they appear, upon the principles of perspective, to converge to that point in the heavens to which the dipping needle points, and so form what is called the corona. Professor Potter, in his interesting paper, undertakes to show that these auroras are beyond the ordinary limits assigned to the earth's atmosphere, and their cause must therefore be sought in extraneous matter arising within the influence of the earth's magnetism, or electro magnetism; that the phenomenon in fact is owing to gaseous matter, which in its path in space comes within the earth's influence. We regret we have not space for a more particular notice of this article.

One of the latest wonders connected with the application of steam to locomotion, is the offer of the Brighton Company to carry the daily mail on the route for the British Government free of charge.

The French naturalist, M. Rochet d'Hericourt, has returned from his second scientific tour into Abyssinia, bringing a large collection of objects of interest and curiosity.

Science has received quite a blow in the Papal States, from three decrees issued by the Pope. One is to prohibit any kind of railway in his dominions; another forbids any of his subjects from attending a scientific congress; and third, which bears on the medical art, orders that no physician shall continue his attentions to the sick who after the third visit have not received the sacrament.

We have some interesting information in relation to the late expedition from the Cape of Good Hope to the antarctic regions, undertaken by Lt. Moore, with the barque Pagoda, under the direction of the British Government. Lt. Moore penetrated further to the southward between the meridian of Greenwich and 120° east, than any other navigator. He completed the whole series of magnetic observations left unfinished by the Erebus and Terror, and very nearly reached the magnetic pole. The existence of the antarctic continent, "Victoria Land," has been positively confirmed, and many important discoveries were made. The Pagoda completed a circuit of 14,000 miles in 140 days, and never lost a man. This expedition must have been well conducted.

A new style of keeping a ship's log has been proposed. A wire left trailing in the sea, communicates its electricity to the ship's compass, which is so arranged as to make marks with a pencil on a card. We do not learn the modus operandi any further than this.

LITERARY.

The King of Prussia has purchased the dwelling-houses of the two great reformers, Luther and Melancthon, which he intends to convert into school-houses.

We do not know whether under this head we should properly record a *soiree*, but we cannot avoid noticing the various methods made use of in England, to give eclat to their literary associations. On the 23d of October last, the Manchester Atheneum celebrated their anniversary, by a meeting at the Free Trade Hall, where addresses were delivered, refreshments served, and two military bands of music were present.

M. Botta has returned from Bagdad, bringing with him copies of numerous and valuable inscriptions, found among the ruins of Nineveh.

In a cave in Algeria, eight leagues from Guelma, and recently discovered, a large number of Latin inscriptions have been found, bearing the names of African Christian martyrs. Among them is one of Donatus.

A writer in the London Atheneum, has a very amusing paper, on the subject of relics. From it, it now appears, if we choose to believe, we may learn the following singular anecdotes in relation to the pecuniary value which is sometimes placed on the relics of the great. The ivory chair of Gustavus Vasa was sold in Germany, in 1823, for £6,000. The coat of Charles XII., of Sweden, worn at Pultowa, was sold in Edinburgh, in 1825, for £22,000, a price, we imagine, greatly exagerated in the repetition. M. Lenoir, the founder of the French Museum, was offered four thousand dollars for one of the teeth of the famous Heloise. Lord Shaftsbury, in 1816, paid £730 for a tooth of Sir Isaac Newton. Voltaire's cane was sold for £20, at Paris, Rousseau's waistcoat brought £40, and his copper watch £20. Sterne's wig produced in London 200 guineas. The hat worn by Napoleon, at Eylau, was bought in 1845, by M. Lacroix, for £77, and Sir Francis Burdett paid £500 for the two pens used in signing the treaty of Aix la Chapelle.

Among the most interesting of the literary novelties announced, we find the Fall of Napoleon, a historical memoir, by Col. Mitchell, author of the Life of Wallenstein.

The Life of Mozart, by Edward Holmes, the republication of Miss Fuller's work, Women in the 19th century. (This lady is a well known contributor to the New York Tribune.)

A work called the People's Dictionary of the Bible, has advanced to the second number. It is illustrated with maps and engravings.

Mrs. Childs's Letters from New York, are favourably reviewed in the London Atheneum.

The Principia of Swedenborg, are being republished in London.

A work on the philosophy of the water-cure is advertised. It may by some be asserted that Priesnitz has discovered a panacea, but science refuses to admit the existence of a universal remedy.

The seventh Congress of the Italian Scienzati, came off at Naples in the month of September last. We perceive it arranged itself into sections, after the example of the English:

1. Agronomia e Tecnologie.

2. Botanica e Pisiologia Vegetale.
3. Geologia e Mineralogia.
4. Archeologia e Geografia.
5. Fisica e Matematica.
6. Medecina.
7. Chirurgia.
8. Zoologia.

The session on the first day was honoured by the presence of the King and Royal family, and at its subsequent meetings the congress was gratified with many able and elegant papers on subjects of a practical and popular character. It is believed that a new impulse had been given by these congresses, to the literary and philosophical spirit of the Italians.

The fatigue of holding a book while reading it at some length, has been obviated by the adoption of a reading easel, which is fastened to a seat or table and can be placed so as to hold the book in any position desired.

We notice a republication of the poems of Mr. Hirst. The English Critic, in speaking of him, says : "This is a new American poet, a mocking bird, like most of his brethren. With considerable fancy and sweetness of versification, his thoughts are obscured by mystical tendencies."

A little book has appeared called the Author's Hand-Book, which contains an account of the business of publishing. In the title of contents are the following subjects. Sale of manuscripts. Commission publishing. Size of books. Cost of paper and printing. Engravings. Price of books. Relative cost and products of editions of 500, 750, and 1000 copies of demy octavo, sheet and a half post, and foolscap octavo.

One of the latest efforts of the antiquarians is to discover who was Jack Wilson, a singer on Shakspeare's stage?

The Hon. Captain Keppel, an agreeable writer, has published a Narrative of the Expedition to Borneo, in 1843–4, to suppress piracy.

Jenny Basket, an American Romance, by Col. Johnson, is in progress of publication in Taits' Edinburgh Magazine. Quere—What Col. Johnson?

Dr. Turner's Notes on the Chrono-thermal System of Medicine have been reprinted in England with Dr. Dickson's work.

FINE ARTS.

The Royal Foundry in Munich has been much occupied with the preparation of a colossal statue by M. Schwanthaler. A writer, in speaking of it, says the figure is *sixty feet high*, and is best seen from the northern confines of the city.

An ingenious alteration of its rules has been adopted by the Liverpool Art Union. Any person who is a subscriber, may purchase any picture he desires on its catalogue, at the price fixed, and with this understanding: if he draws a prize at the annual distribution, he may have the privilege of returning the purchase money and claiming it as his prize. If he does not draw a prize, he retains the picture he purchased, and the Art Union retain the money. There are frequent occasions in the Art Union of our own city where a very large sum would be paid for a picture, in order that it might be secured, and the amount thus gained, would enable the association to increase their orders with the artists. As the object is to benefit art, rather than to consider it as a lottery, we deem the Liverpool plan a very excellent one.

While we are speaking of paintings, we must not forget to recommend to our connoisseurs, a new porcelain lustre varnish, invented by a Mr. Bentley. The London chemists and artists speak of it in the highest terms.

A wood engraving has been discovered at Malines, bearing the date of 1418. This is considered the earliest of the known specimens. The October number of the London Atheneum contains a very fine facsimile.

The column of the "Grand Army," which, for forty-one years has been in progress of construction at Boulogne, to commemorate the distribution of decorations by Napoleon to his soldiers at that place, is now completed. The shaft is 150 feet in height, and is crowned with a colossal statue of twelve feet more. It is of the Doric order, and stands upon the rocks of the coast looking towards England.

A writer, in discribing it, says it is a fitting illustration of the mutations of its time.

"The plan itself, its subsequent long suspension, and its final resumption and termination, are themselves, as it were, expressions of the great leading facts of the last fifty years."

Lizst is composing a five act opera for the Italian theatre in Vienna, founded on a subject in Venetian history.

It is asserted that the school of French painting is somewhat improving. There is already an obvious change in colour and treatment. The spiritual prevails over the classical. A writer, in elucidating this point, remarks very justly, we think, of David and his school, that their pictures suggest the idea of plays got up in a lunatic asylum, where the madmen, to make their heroism appear more inflexible, wear their straight waist-coats.

The Dutch school, at the present day, is said to be still characterized by superiority of manual execution rather than design. Of course, in imitation and reality, it is still pre-eminent. We find the names of Wappers, De Keiser, Brias, De Bruycker, De Loose, Biard, Tschaggeny, and Vanderboeckhoven, as being prominent at the late triennial exhibition of the Brussels Gallery.

NOTICES OF NEW BOOKS.

Observations on the East, principally in Egypt, Palestine, Syria, and Asia Minor. By John P. Durbin, D. D., late President of Dickinson College: author of "Observations in Europe," &c. In two volumes. New York: Harper & Brothers, 82 Cliff street. 1845.

It has seldom fallen to our lot to read a more interesting book of travels than this of Dr. Durbin. Although his path had often been trodden by other travellers, and we have had descriptions of all that he saw, yet there is much in his book that is new. He does not give merely an account of the various interesting objects that presented themselves, but accompanies them with inquiries, reasonings, and disquisitions, as to the localities, and their relations to Scriptural accounts, such as are seldom found; and these are accompanied with his own views and feelings, which add much to the interest of his narrative.

With a true independence of character, and, as it appears to us, with much judgment, he examines into the probabilities of the legends and stories which are told him by those who exhibit particular locations as having been the seat of this or that remarkable event recorded in Scripture—giving to the reader his reasons for believing or disbelieving the stories which are told, indiscriminately, to every traveller.

Fully impressed with the sacredness of the ground over which he is travelling, while visiting Jerusalem and the many places in its neighbourhood consecrated by the birth and teachings of the Saviour, he nevertheless does not permit himself to be led into a blind devotion to particular localities, more especially to those which are now exhibited as sites of miracles, or scenes of deep interest, which his own knowledge and judgement convince him are misplaced. As an example of this, we extract, from page 300, of vol. 1st, his summing up upon the subject of the Holy Sepulchre, which is as follows:

"In all the aspects of the question in which I can view it, I am constrained to adopt the opinion, that there is no sufficient ground for believing in the identity of the Holy Sepulchre with the scene of our Lord's crucifixion and burial; but, on the contrary, that the conditions of the Scripture narrative cannot be fulfilled, in view of the accounts of Josephus, and the unerring testimony of the localities themselves, by the supposed site of those memorable events. Where they did occur, is a question that, in all human probability, will never be answered; and although we may regret that time and violence have removed all memorials of places so distinguished in the history of God's dealings with man, we may be abundantly consoled by the reflection, that our Christian faith needs no such memorials to rouse its activity, so long as it is written, that 'Christ died for our sins, and rose again for our justification.'"

We commend this book to the careful perusal of all who desire to accompany a pious, intelligent man, through Egypt, Syria, and Asia Minor—a man of education, and a pleasing writer, who mingles throughout an interesting account of what he saw, a full share of sound judgement, good taste, and benevolent feelings.

The work is embellished with many handsome wood cuts and beautiful engravings.

The Wandering Jew, superbly illustrated by the most eminent artists of Paris. A new and elegant translation. New York: HARPER & BROTHERS. 1845. *To be completed in about* 18 *numbers.*

No. 4 of this magnificent work is just published, and like its three predecessors, it contains a large number of splendid characteristic wood engravings.

No work of fiction that we know of, admits of illustrations to so much advantage as this heart-stirring one of the Wandering Jew, and never were there a more appropriate set of engravings.

Each portrait, if examined, will be found to deliniate the character it represents to the very life. The very first figure in No. 4., that of "Agricola," if examined, will strikingly show how perfectly the artist has understood his character.

But it is useless to particularize; all, all are exactly what they should be; and the price only twenty-five cents a number.

Appleton's Literary Miscellany, a series of books for popular reading. No. 4 contains Memoirs of an American Lady, with sketches of manners and scenery in America, as they existed previous to the Revolution, by Mrs. Grant, author of "Letters from the Mountains," etc., etc. Two volumes of the London edition in one. New York: D. APPLETON & Co., 200 Broadway. Philadelphia: GEO. S. APPLETON, 148 Chesnut street. Cincinnati: DERBY, BRADLEY & Co., 113 Main street. 1845.

This book must excite great interest in all persons who are desirous of acquiring information with regard to the first settlement of the State of New York. The graphic and lively descriptive powers of the author of "Letters from the Mountains" are here put in requisition to describe the scenes of her early youth, passed in close intimacy with some of the most distinguished families in the State—viz: the Cuylers, Schuylers, Van Cortlandts and Van Rensselaers. We have read no similar work at all to compare with this, for spirited narrative and touching incident. It bears the mark of truthfulness in every line, and introduces us to the acquaintance of those of whose every movement the author treats, so that the reader really appears to be living and moving in their society. The simplicity of manners and habits of the early Dutch settlers of New York are here so accurately delineated, and are so captivating, that the reader forgets he is acquiring his knowledge from a book, and by a certain charm in the style feels as though he were really acquainted, personally, with the magnanimous Col. Philip Schuyler, his incomparble wife, and all the remarkable personages of that interesting period. The sketches of Indian character are inimitable, and the description of Albany, with the habits, manners, customs and style of living, among these early settlers, is true to the very life. In fine, the whole book is one of a character rarely to be met with, in works treating of early American history. Much of this is, of course, due to the graphic powers of the author, but much more to the fact that it was her good fortune to pass her youth among families and persons whose nobleness of character would have graced any country, and been distinguished in any age.

It would not be an easy task to produce from history brighter examples of every heroic virtue, than fell under the notice of Mrs. Grant, and to whom it has been her pride and pleasure, in these Memoirs, to accord to us the great favour of a familiar, unostentatious introduction.

We have derived so much pleasure and instruction from her narrative, that we can readily forgive its author for the anti-American sentiments occasionally introduced—which, however they may be pardoned in a loyal Scotch lady, are little suited to our republican ideas. But she saw only the boisterous scenes which ever convulse the moral elements of society, in a political revolution, while we are allowed the great privilege of witnessing its glorious results, in the peace, plenty, and happiness, it has so widely diffused.

Wiley & Putnam's Foreign Library.

No's. 3 and 4 contain, The Rhine, by Victor Hugo, author of the "Hunchback of Notre Dame," "Leaves of Autumn," etc. In two volumes.

Perhaps no book of travels ever created more sensation than did that of Victor Hugo on the Rhine, now for the first time republished in America.

The celebrity of the author, the great interest felt in every thing that relates to the Rhine, its scenery, the country through which it flows, and the knowledge of the German character, which a traveller acquires in visiting the many cities and towns on its borders—the events in history connected with them and with that famous river—all conspire to excite a curiosity to know what impression would be made by a visit to these scenes upon such a mind as that of Victor Hugo—a mind so remarkable for its brilliancy and acumen—that the cities of Paris and London were on the tiptoe of expectation—and the American public will not wonder at the desire which the transatlantic reader felt to possess this interesting work, when they shall enjoy the great treat now offered them in its perusal. We wish our space would permit us to make some extracts from it, but that is impossible; they must read it, and they will never have cause to regret, either its cost, or the time devoted to its perusal.

No. 5 contains Memoirs of Father Ripa during thirteen years residence at the Court of Pekin, in the service of the Emperor of China, with an account of the foundation of the college for the education of the young Chinese at Naples. Selected and translated from the Italian, by Fortunato Prandi.

This is one of the most valuable of the old books which treat of China. Nor is its age any disparagement, for the Chinese are a people so attached to what they call "old custom," that in almost all particulars they are at this time what they were in the days of Father Ripa. Three voyages to Canton, and a residence of some time there, have given the editor an opportunity of judging of the value of Father Ripa's narrative, and he confidently recommends it, as well calculated to give its readers a good general idea of that very numerous and extraordinary people.

Wiley & Putnam's Library of Choice Reading.

No 36 gives us the Lectures on the British Poets, by William Hazlett. Price 50 cents.

This volume contains an interesting lecture on poetry in general; begins with Chaucer and Spencer, proceeds wtih Shakspeare and Milton, Dryden and Pope, Thompson and Cowper, Swift, Young, Gray, etc., Burns and the old ballads—and then goes on with living poets. It contains, also, an appendix, in which is introduced Milton's Eve, Wadsworth's Excursion, and ends with Pope, Lord Byron and Mr. Bowles. Throughout the book, the author institutes comparisons and criticisms, and makes ample quotations from the poets on whose works he lectures. Much instruction and interest must always be felt in perusing these criticisms and comparisons from a writer of such acknowledged acumen as Hazlitt. For, however much we may admire the works of the respective votaries of the muses, our knowledge and relish of them is sure to be quickened and enlarged by judicious criticisms and comparison.

The Book of Good Examples, drawn from authentic history and biography, designed to illustrate the beneficial effects of virtuous conduct: by John Frost, L. L. D., author of the "Book of the Colonies," "Book of the Army," and "Book of the Navy." New York: D. Appleton, 200 Broadway. Philadelphia: G. S. Appleton, 148 Chesnut street. 1846.

Mr. Frost, we think, has succeeded in his design of mingling the instructive and the pleasing in this volume. The anecdotes appear to be well selected, and in good taste. The frontispiece, representing Joan of Arc, is quite spirited and characteristic, and the wood cuts throughout are well executed. The whole book is well got up, and doubtless will claim its full share of public favour, being well calculated to desseminate sound principles in a pleasant manner.

Prariedom: Rambles and Scrambles in Texas or New Estramadura, by a Suthron. With a map. New York: PAINE & BURGESS, 62 John street. "*Who would be free himself must strike the blow.*"

These Rambles are written in a lively and pleasing style. The author is an enthusiast, and gives the most glowing description of the beauty of the scenery, the salubrity of the climate, and the natural riches of Texas, all of which he appears to believe are not excelled, if equalled, in any other country. The following short extract will give the reader some idea of his style, while it will at the same time offer a summary of his exalted opinion of such portion of the Lone Star as he visited in his "Rambles:"

"In our various rambles through Texas, we were particularly struck with the general beauty of the country, its high rolling prairies, its post oak openings, its live oak forests, its lawns and parks, its blue skies and amber sunshines, the fertility of the soil, and the general ease and comfort with which health and longevity may be sustained in that 'sunny land.' We have rambled from the Sabine to the San Antonio, and high upon the Brazos to Tenoxteilan and Nashville, and down the Colorado to Matagorda and the champagne country bordering on the sea. We have crossed every stream, and every town and county, and made the acquaintance of every citizen in the State. We have run the gauntlet among savage Indians and 'the wild man of the woods,' hunted the deer and given chase to the buffalo, fished in the lake, and sported upon the prairies, bagged snipe, grouse, plover, and woodcock, and realized all the pleasures for the time being of a border life. . . . . For all this we desire to be thankful to a kindly Providence, who sustains the weary and protects the weak, and has permitted us to see and realize all the beauty of his handiwork in the far west, and to return again in safety to our friends and family, and to recount to them the eventful incidents of our travel's history.

The Book of Useful Knowledge. A Cyclopædia of six thousand practical receipts, and collateral information, in the arts, manufactures, and trades, including medicine, pharmacy and domestic economy. Designed as a compendious book of reference for the manufacturer, tradesman, amateur, and heads of families, by Arnold James Cooley, Practical Chemist. Illustrated with numerous engravings. New York: D. APPLETON & Co., 200 Broadway. Philadelphia: GEO. S. APPLETON, 148 Chesnut street. Cincinnati: HENRY W. DERBY & Co., 113 Main street. 1845.

From a careful examination of this work we are fully prepared to say, the compiler has fulfilled his design, which we find by the publishers preface to be, "to present an accurate and compendious collection of formulæ and processes, with a variety of information suitable to the general reader and practical purposes."

There are accurate descriptions of all the acids, alkali's and neutral salts, with their uses in medicine and in the arts. Indeed, few if any substances can be thought of, entering into the usual manipulatory processes of chemistry, medicine or the arts, that are not here practically treated, while the nature of the substances is explained in as full a manner as the cyclopædia form will permit. In one thing this work excels, and that is in the almost innumerable formulæ and recipes given of Anodynes, Balsams, Baths, Bread, Butter, Cakes, Cheese, Cider, Conserves, Decoctions, Draughts, Drops, Scented Waters, as Eàu de Cologne, Lavender, and many others, Embrocations, Emulsions, Essences, Enemas, Gargles, Infusions, Jellies, Liniments, Lotions, Lozenges, Mixtures, Oils, Ointments, Pills, Plasters, Poultices, Powders, Syrups, Soaps, Solutions, Spirits, Tinctures, Varnishes, Mineral and Medical Waters, &c., &c.

We of course can only give a general idea of this really copious compilation. Its merits will, however, speak amply for themselves, whenever reference shall be made to the work, and we think those who named it have not overrated it, in calling it *The* Book of Useful Knowledge.

Trippings in Author-land, by Fanny Forester. New York: PAINE & BURGESS, 62 John street. 1845.

These Trippings, though evidently "light as air," are nevertheless accompanied with a very agreeable playfulness in thought and style, and are well adapted to the purpose for which they are penned—to while away a pleasant hour in innocent gossip. To such purposes *we* have but little time to spare, still we commenced to read "The Unuseful," and did not lay down the book till we had finished "Nora Maylie." Doubtless there will be found not a few who will find great pleasure in reading all it contains.

The Oath a Divine Ordinance, and an Element of the Social Constitution: its origin, nature, ends, efficacy, lawfulness, obligations, form, and abuses, by D. X. Junkin, A. M., Pastor of the Presbyterian Church, Greenwich, N. J. New York: Wiley & Putnam, 168 Broadway. 1845.

There is much difference of opinion upon the propriety of exacting oaths. This book is written to support it, upon scriptural and social grounds. We pretend not to decide how far the author has succeeded. Happily our institutions do not require an oath from those who are conscientiously opposed to taking it, and upon this, as upon all other subjects of religious accountability, we think it is very difficult for any one man to judge for another. The author of this book appears to admit, in page 115, that an affirmation is equally binding with an oath—indeed he says, in so many words, " the affirmer as really swears as the formal juror." Admitting this to be true, and knowing the fact that this variation in the form satisfies tender consciences, we think the wisdom of institutions that thus obviates difficulties which might otherwise interfere with the purposes of justice, are made fully manifest.

In what Mr. Junkin says, to impress upon his readers the solemnity of an oath, we most cordially agree with him, as we do also in the fear expressed that the oath in many instances is two lightly estimated.

The Mass and Rubrics of the Roman Catholic Church, translated into English, with Notes and Remarks by the Rev. J Rogerson Cotton, A. M., Rector of Inneshannon, author of "Questions on St. Matthew and other Gospels." "Prove all things: hold fast that which is good." New York: D Appleton & Co., 200 Broadway. Philadelphia: Geo. S. Appleton, 148 Chesnut street. Cincinnati: Derby, Bradley & Co., 113 Main street. 1845.

The object of this work appears to be to make known in the English language the prayers of the Mass, and to expostulate upon them with the people of the Roman Catholic Church, comparing them with the rules set forth in the Gospels. It appears, so far as it is controversional, to be written in a good spirit, and therefore we trust will give no offence. The spirit of the age is indeed one of tolerance, and in this free country, while all have an undoubted right to follow the dictates of conscience in matters of religion, there can surely no harm result from books of this nature, which are not intended to do any violence to the feelings. It will, moreover, doubtless be satisfactory to many to have an accurate translation of the Roman Catholic Mass and Rubrics.

The Artist, the Merchant, and the Statesman, of the Age of the Medici, and of Our Own Times. In two volumes. By C. Edwards Lester, U. S. Consul at Genoa, author of "The Glory and Shame of England," "The Condition and Fate of England," translator of "Machiavelli," "Alfieri," etc., honorary member of the Ateneo Italiano at Florence. New York: Paine & Burgess, 62 John street. 1845.

The portion of this volume devoted to our distinguished countryman, Hiram Powers, and his matchless achievements in statuary, we have read with great interest, and think the American public have cause to be much obliged to Mr. Lester for the adroit manner in which he procured it from the half reluctant genius himself. It is instructive and highly entertaining, and we think must be sought after by all who have a proper feeling of national pride. The Consular part of the book shall claim our attention another time. It is a matter of no small importance to our commerce, and character as a nation. And we are very desirous to give Mr. Lester's views a careful examination, not doubting that his experience in the matter will throw much light on a subject which requires investigation, and we think reform.

The Cosmos: A Survey of the General Physical History of the Universe. By Alexander Von Humboldt, Parts 1 *and* 2. New York: Harper & Brothers, 82 Cliff street. 1845.

The name of Humboldt, as the author of a treatise on a subject of such deep research and of a character so important, cannot fail to command the highest possible consideration. It is indeed a source of great congratulation, that he has given such a treatise to the world, for the world is the subject of his examination, and the *world* will read it.

It is not, however, a book to be soon read; it must be studied. This we propose to do as soon as leisure will permit, for to remain in ignorance of the facts and reasonings such a work must contain, would be to refuse to be instructed by one of the greatest philosophers of this, if not of any preceding age.

The Book of the Colonies, comprising a History of the Colonies composing the United States, from the discovery, in the tenth century, until the commencement of the Revolutionary War: compiled from the best authorities, by John Frost, L. L. D., author of the "Book of the Army," and "Book of the Navy." New York: D. APPLETON & Co., 200 Broadway. Philadelphia: G. S. APPLETON, 148 Chesnut street. 1845.

This is a very neat abridgement of the history of the discovery and settlement of America, beginning with the account of the supposed voyages of the Northmen, the discovery by Columbus, the Cabots, Ponce De Leon, Alvaro, De Soto, &c., with forty-eight illustrations in handsome wood-cuts, and a beautiful copperplate picture of Fort Duquesne. For a compendium of the discovery of America, and the early history of those enterprising men who first trod the soil of the New World, this compilation forms a useful and interesting manual; and, as a first-book, it contains very good ideas of the manner in which the Spaniards first, and the English afterwards, colonized their newly acquired possessions in the Western hemisphere. It is, moreover, enlivened by many appropriate and pleasing anecdotes; being, altogether, a book calculated to amuse and instruct those into whose hands more copious histories of these events would probably never fall. It is beautifully printed, and the woodcuts give it a lively appearance.

The Knickerbocker.

The November number of this time-honoured periodical is before us, and though it may be thought a work of supererogation in us, to express an opinion upon the merits of a periodical in its *twenty-seventh volume*, yet we claim the privilege of saying, that this is a very good number, and fully sustains the high character everywhere known to belong to the New York Knickerbocker.

Its contents are—Letter from Cuba; Vespers; Ave Purissima, etc., by a new contributor; the St. Leger Papers, No. 6; An Epigram to "Rubeta;" Lines to an Oyster; Letter from the Beaver Meadow; The Surprise; Youth and Old Age; Apropos des Bottes; Increase our Faith; Eastern Etiquette and Good Breeding; The Ladies of Llangollen; Dissertations on Tourneures and Walking; Lines suggested by a Daguerreotype Portrait; The Old Earth, or Six Thousand Years Ago; Ned Buntline's Life-Yarn; Mi'Nueve Dulce Quealla, from the Italian; Midnight Musings; Knickerbocker; Men and Things; Live to Do Good; Literary Notices; and Editor's Table.

Wiley & Putnam's Library of American Books, No. 7. Western Clearings, by Mrs. C. M. Kirkland, author of "A New Home," &c. New York, 161 Broadway: and London, 6 Waterloo Place. Price fifty cents.

As the title purports, this number contains sketches of life in the new settlements of the west, which are arranged under different heads, and so we have here—the Land Fever, Ball at Thram's Huddle, A Forest Fete, Love *vs.* Aristocracy, Harvest Musings, The Bee Tree, Idle People, Chances and Changes, Ambuscades, Old Thoughts on the New Year, The Schoolmaster's Progress, Half-lengths from Life, An Embroidered Fact, and Bitter Fruits from Chance-sown Seeds.

There is much of the troubles, difficulties, and perplexities, of new settlements, shown under these various heads; but there is also much of interesting incident; and besides that it is well to know how the first settlers bear the privations to which they are of necessity exposed, it is also pleasing to find that there is among them a good share of benevolence, and that though their manners are not overburthened with the polish of more refined society, yet they are not deficient in many of the exalted virtues, and of the best affections. Mrs. Kirkland has thus, in this book, combined much to instruct and entertain her readers.

No. 8 of this Library contains the Raven, and other Poems, by Edgar A. Poe. In the absence of time to examine them, we cannot do better than give what the author says of himself, and of these Poems:

"These trifles are collected and republished, chiefly with a view to their redemption from the many improvements to which they have been subjected, while going at random 'the rounds of the press.' If what I have written is to circulate at all, I am naturally anxious it should circulate as I write it. In defence of my own taste, nevertheless, it is incumbent upon me to say, that I think nothing in this volume of much value to the public, or very creditable to myself. Events not to be controlled, have prevented me from making at any time any serious effort in what, under happier circumstances, would have been the field of my choice. With me poetry has been, not a purpose, but a passion: and the passions should be held in reverence: they must not, they cannot at will be excited, with an eye to the paltry compensations or more paltry commendations of mankind."

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COMMERCE OF THE HANSE TOWNS,

THEIR RISE, PROGRESS, AND PRESENT STATE.

THE Hanseatic League, as it is called, was an association formed by the principal cities of the north of Germany to protect their commerce. It was greatly celebrated in the early history of modern Europe, rose to very great maritime power, established sound principles of legislation, and broke completely up that system of piracy which existed in the Baltic Sea up to the time of its formation.

Historians differ as to the exact year in which this league was formed; though all agree that it took place during the middle or latter part of the twelfth or beginning of the thirteenth century. Werdenhagen, a German author of repute, fixes upon the year 1169 for the first formation of the league which, he says, consisted of the twelve following towns, viz: Lubec, Wismar, Rostock, Stralsund, Gripswald, Anclam, Stettin, Colberg, Stolpe, Dantzig, Elbing, and Koningsberg; while Lambecius, librarian to the Emperor Leopold, is of opinion that the Hanse League did not probably commence till after the league which took place between Lubec and Hamburg, in the year 1241. It was a standing rule of this confederacy, that no cities should be admitted into the league but such as were either situated on the sea, or in some navigable river commodious for maritime commerce. Another standing rule was, not to admit any cities which did not keep the keys of their own gates, and did not moreover, exercise civil jurisdiction within themselves; yet it was admitted that in other respects they might acknowledge some superiour lord or prince; and upon this principle they afterwards admitted many cities in the Netherlands, provided their princes were bound by oath to acknowledge their independence to be entire. They chose the German knights of the cross, settled in Prussia, for their protectors, who had made a conquest of Livonia, and erected a republic, there about the year 1212, of which the Grand Master of these knights was the head. Thus, in process of time, the Hanse Towns became possessed of all the commerce of the south shores of the Baltic, from Denmark to the bottom of the Gulf of Finland.

The confederacy was divided into four classes, over each of which a certain city presided. At the head of the first class, and also of the whole league, was Lubec, an old, rich, and potent city. They had an extraordinary general assembly once in ten years, at which they solemnly confirmed their union, which was renewed in 1284, and confirmed a great many times during the succeeding centuries and ages.

The city of Bruges, in Flanders, was early made one of their principal places of resort, which caused it greatly to increase in riches and in commerce.

During the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries their prosperity and power went on increasing to such an extent that they made war successfully against Denmark. In England, they had great privileges, under the title of the Merchants of the Steel-yard, London, which was not finally abolished till 1587, in the reign of Elizabeth, when these privileges were for ever abrogated.

During the fourteenth and fifteenth centuries they comprised from sixty to eighty cities, and this appears to have been the period of their great sway. But as the commerce of Holland, England, and the other powers of Northern Europe increased, that of the Hanse Towns naturally declined. Other causes also contributed to its decrease; they did not confine their efforts to the advancement of commerce and their own protection, but from their great success they became arrogant, and grasped at a monopoly of the trade of the north, and emulated in the Baltic the supremacy, which Venice exercised over the Adriatic. This led them into repeated wars with Denmark, Sweden, and Norway. Thus, from the middle of the fifteenth century, their power began to decline. Their superiority had resulted from the anarchy, confusion, and barbarism that prevailed throughout the kingdoms of the north, and could not, therefore, continue after the extension of civilization and enterprise gradually spread over the adjacent country. Industry and the arts, which began now to be cultivated, brought, in their turn, better laws and regulations, and the authority of government at length was established and consolidated.

The change in the state of the north of Europe not only rendered the princes over whom the league had so frequently triumphed, superiour to them in power, but, the advantages of commerce and navigation began to be fully estimated, and the neighbouring nations could not brook the monopoly, which the Hanseatic League had obtained; and in addition to this, differences grew up, and increased more and more, among the members of the League itself; so that the towns gradually fell off. The cities of Zealand and Holland had joined it, chiefly to preserve a share of the commerce of the Baltic, and those of Prussia, Poland, and Russia did the same, because had they not belonged to it, they would have been excluded from all intercourse with strangers. So that when the Zealanders and Hollanders became sufficiently powerful to protect their own commerce, they left the league; and as the ships of these nations and of the English began a trade with the Polish and Prussian Hanse Towns, they also seceded. The fall of this once formidable maritime power, was the necessary consequence, of the progress made in commerce and the arts which it had itself so largely contributed to establish, and which had greatly extended itself throughout Europe, at the close of the sixteenth and the commencement of the seventeenth century.

The Hanseatic League had indeed been very serviceable in suppressing the lawless depredations which were committed on every species of maritime trade, in its early progress, and doubtless aided much in the advancement of civilization. As this advancement, through its agency, began to produce its good fruits in a submission to the laws, and a much better mode of life in every sense, their ministration was at an end, and their power of consequence declined; so that by the middle of the seventeenth century the cities of Hamburg, Bremen, and Lubec, alone remained, as they still continue to be the only places, bearing the names of the once powerful Hanse Towns.

But these three cities are still very important, when considered merely in a commercial point of view. Hamburg possesses a population of one hundred and fifty thousand, and is one of the greatest commercial cities of Germany. Situate on the River Elbe, which is navigable for small craft as far as Prague; she is the depository for an immense tract of country. There is also an artificial communication by sluices, between the Elbe and the Oder, and between the latter and the Vistula, so that a large portion of the produce of Silesia destined for exportation, and some part of the trade of Poland, passes through Hamburg. The exports consist principally of linens, wool, and woollen cloths, leather, flax, glass, iron, copper, smalts, rags, staves, wooden clocks, toys of all kinds, grain and pulse of all descriptions.

The imports for the most part are sugar, coffee, cotton, rice, tobacco, hides, indigo, wine, brandy, rum, dye woods, tea, pepper, &c., &c.

The average annual aggregate of the imports and exports of Hamburg, when added together, amount to $70,000,000.

Of course the interiour of Germany consumes by far the greater part of its imports which passes up the Elbe. That river rises in Bohemia, not far from the Carpathian mountains, and flowing through that country receives the Moldau and its tributury streams, and also the Eger, which joining the Elbe some distance below, has its source in Franconia. Leaving Bohemia, the Elbe flows by Dresden and Magdeburg, receiving the Mulde, Elster, and some rivers of less importance. The Havel, which communicates with the Oder by Potsdam and Berlin, falls also into the Elbe. The internal commerce by the Elbe is greater than that of the Rhine, or any other river in Europe.

The territory of Hamburg comprehends the district in the rear of the city, to the north and the east; part of the islands in the River Elbe, including the town of Bergendorf, besides which it has a joint property with Lubec in the district of Vierlanden; some detached lands in Holstein—the islet Neuwerk, on which there are two lighthouses, besides which there is a beacon, without the entrance of the Elbe; Cuxhaven and the district around it, including the small town of Ritzbutell. The area of the whole, is about 149 geographic square miles. The lands south and east of the city, and especially the islands in the Elbe, are highly cultivated. The population of the city and territories is estimated at about 160,000 inhabitants; 140,500 Lutherans, 5,500 Calvanists, 3,200 Catholics, 1,400 of various sects, and 9,500 Jews.

Lubec stands on the River Trave, which flows down from Holstein, fourteen miles above the junction of that stream with the Baltic at Travemunde, which latter is, properly, the port of Lubec.

The population of Lubec is stated at 40,000 to 50,000, who are remarkably industrious, having all the accompaniments of trade, such as a commercial exchange, insurance companies, &c., &c., and several manufactories, such as tobacco, tanneries, hat making, woollen cloth, canvass, sugar refineries, &c., &c.

The statistal details of the trade of Lubec are very meagre, the Senate observing a mysterious secrecy as to their proceedings. It is, however, of little importance here, for there is little, if any, trade between Lubec and the United States. Its geographical position adapts it more particularly to the carrying trade to and from Russia, Finland, Prussia, Sweden, and Denmark. Situated between the corn-producing countries of Mecklenburg and Holstein, it makes considerable shipments of grain to England. Northern produce is forwarded by the Stecknitz canal, free of duty, to the Elbe, and from thence to its ultimate destination. It supplies the adjacent country with salt and pit coal.

Bremen, the third and last Hanseatic city, is situated on the River Weser, about fifty miles from its mouth, which renders it the principal emporium of Hanover, Brunswick, Hesse, and other countries traversed by that river. Its principal exports are grain, oak bark, glass, smalts, hams, hides, rape seed, beef and pork, rags, wool, woollen goods, wine, &c. The imports consist of coffee, sugar, and other colonial products, tobacco, whale oil, iron, rice, hides, raw cotton, cotton stuffs and yarn, earthen ware, brandy, butter, tar, tea, dye woods, timber, hemp, &c.

The commercial intercourse of Bremen with the United States is extensive and important. This small city is one of the principal markets in Europe for American tobacco. The average quantity sent there is nearly 30,000 hhds. annually—and of this amount the larger portion is from Maryland. It is distributed from Bremen all over Germany, Prussia, Austria, and Russia. A considerable number of Bremen vessels resort for it to Baltimore, and some to Petersburgh and Richmond, Va. The inspection established in Philadelphia has augmented the direct intercourse between Bremen and that city.

Another important connexion between Bremen and this country, consists in its being the principal port in Germany from which emigrants embark for the United States—a very large portion of whom come from Hesse. There are annually above ten thousand Germans who embark at Bremen to find an asylum in the United States, who make, in the general, good citizens, being sober, honest, and industrious people.

Our principal articles of import from Bremen are silks, manufactured mostly at Elberfield and Crevelt, in Prussia; cotton goods, principally hosiery, made in Saxony; woollens, chiefly merinoes; some coarse woollen hosiery, some light summer cloths, and a few broad cloths; some hardware and steel, manufactured at Remscheid, Solingen, and the neighbouring places in Prussia; hollow glass ware, such as the commonest tumblers, and wine and porter bottles—these latter articles gradually decreasing, as our glass works supply their places; some very coarse linen for bagging, called Hessians, and Hœden rolls, burlaps, oil cloths, tapes, bobbins, &c.; looking-glass plates of small sizes, and articles from Nuremberg, in Bavaria; thread, silk, and cotton lace, and toys, from Sonneburg, in Saxony.

Through those connected with our New York custom-house, we learn that our trade with Germany is greatly on the increase, particularly in the article of woollen cloths, which are said to be fast rivalling those imported from England.

With this very short sketch of the rise, progress, and decline of the once mighty Hanse Towns—now reduced from eighty or a hundred of the most powerful cities of Europe, to the only three which are left, and which are the subject of this notice—we proceed to give an exact account of our trade with them up to the 30th June, 1844, reserving what we may have to say on our treaty of reciprocity with them for another occasion, when we shall inquire into what we think we shall show to be its very injurious effects upon our shipping interests.

IMPORTS FROM THE HANSE TOWNS INTO THE UNITED STATES.

Copper in plates and sheets, ..	$60
Barrilla,	25
All other articles duty free,...	55,785
MANUFACTURES.	
Cloths and cassimeres,	37,559
Merino shawls,	12,641
Worsted stuffs,	55,093
Woollen hosiery, gloves, mits, and bindings,	17.116
Woollen and worsted yarn,...	45,848
Other articles of wool,	4,920
Dyed, printed, or coloured cotton goods,	90,970
White cotton goods,	1,091
Velvet cords, moleskins, fustians, &c.,	14,726
Twist yarn, or thread,	2,285
Cotton hosiery, gloves, mits, and bindings,	674.293
Other cotton manufactures,...	64,437
Silk and worsted goods,	1,455
Camlets and other manufactures of goats hair,	452
Silk floss, and manufactures not specified,	14,866
Thread and cotton lace,	24,619
Gold and silver lace,	2,998
Linens, bleached and other,...	42,965
Other articles of flax,	4,940
Sheetings, brown and white, ..	2,890
Ticklenburgs and burlaps, ...	35,566
Other hempen goods,	621
Ready made clothing,	1,560
Other articles of wear,	7,295
Brass and copper ware,	629
Side arms,	681
Iron and steel.	56,016
Copper,	6,215
Brass,	2,090
Tin,	31
Other metals,	675
Leather not specified,	1,053
Manufactures of wood,	9,215
Plate glass 12 by 14 inches,...	17,347
Plate, silvered, and other articles of glass,	124,428
Leghorn, straw, and chip hats,	23,614
Palm leaf hats,	5,902
China and porcelain,	3.637
Earthen and stone ware,	14,851
Plated and gilt ware,	959
Hats, caps, and muffs,	6,330
Brushes of all kinds,	240
Paper hangings,	506
Slates of all kinds,	6,557
Black lead pencils,	4,909
Zinc, in plates,	25,689
Chronometers and clocks,....	926
Steel,	$1,174
Watches and parts of watches,	1,125
Manufactures of gold and silver,	133
Jewellery,	4,865
Metal and other buttons,	103
Corks,	14
Quills,	843
Sewing silk, silk twist, &c.,....	914
Pongees, plain, white, and other manufactures of silk,	31,958
Raw silk and silk in the gum,.	86
Silk hats and bonnets,	72
Flannels,	117
Sail duck,	14,600
Cotton bagging of hemp,	2,239
Painted floor cloths,	165
Oil cloths,	635
Madeira wine,	100
Champagne,	19
Port wine,	177
Claret and other red wines,....	688
White wine of France,	78
Teneriffe,	29
Wine of Germany,	734
All others,	7
Brandy,	54
Spirits from grain,	2,076
From other materials,	275
Cordials,	166
Beer, ale, and porter,	629
Molasses,	3
Linseed oil.	591
All other oils,	2,981
Chocolate,	91
Cheese,	525
Indigo,	3,072
Gunpowder,	7
Segars,	1,854
Red and white lead,	420
Cordage,	5,116
Twine and packthread,	477
Watch crystals and glasses, ...	237
Cut glass,	7,784
Plain, moulded, or pressed glass,	708
Plain tumblers,	160
Cylinder,	418
Crown,	72
Polished plate,	7,562
Bottles,	132
Demijohns,	4,101
Patent sheathing metal,	1,404
Pins,	129
Muskets and rifles,	12
Chains, other than cables,	1,010
Castings of iron	14
Cast iron butt hinges,	25
Sheet and hoop iron,	3,271
Bar iron not rolled,	36,499

Brought over,.. $1,684,725

Sole and upper leather,.......	$25	
Gloves,.....................	208	
Boots and shoes,..............	182	
Tanned and dressed skins,....	318	
Tanned, not dressed,..........	1	
Writing paper,..............	125	
All other paper,..............	550	
Books, in Latin and Greek,....	1,945	
" in Hebrew,..........	918	
" in English,............	356	
" in other languages,....	5,962	
" in pamphlets and sheets,	311	
Lexicons and all other books,..	435	
Coal,.......................	1,042—	$1,684,725

MISCELLANEOUS AND RAW MATERIALS.

Furs undressed on the skin,...	$78,571	
Hatters' and other furs,.......	46,977	
Prunes,......................	229	
Raisins,......................	$14	
Pimento,......................	450	
Camphor,......................	2,605	
Pearl barley,..................	192	
Beef and pork,................	263	
Hams and bacon,...............	2,657	
Bristles,......................	9,017	
Woad or pastel,...............	20	
Thibet, Angora, and other goats' wool,....................	3,454	
Rags of all kinds,............	10,232	
Potatoes,.....................	301	
Pickled fish,..................	360	
Manilla, seine, and other hemps of India,..................	377	
Wool exceeding 7 cts. per lb.,.	30,250—	$185,969
Non-enumerated articles,..........		230,488
Gold and silver specie,............		35,204

Total imports,.. $2,136,386

STATEMENT OF DOMESTIC EXPORTS TO THE HANSE TOWNS.

Spermaceti oil,...............	$103	
Whale oil,....................	361,069	
Whale bone,..................	190,726	
Spermaceti candles,..........	895	
Staves, headings, boards, &c.,.	5,048	
Other lumber,................	1.344	
Oak bark,....................	10,362	
All manufactures of wood,...	2,011	
Rosin and turpentine,........	24,312	
Ashes, pot and pearl,.........	67,110	
Skins and furs................	64,985	
Beef tallow, hides, &c.,.......	12,583	
Pork, hams, and lard,........	10.462	
Butter and cheese,...........	6,713	
Flour,.......................	7,450	
Rye, oats, and other small grain,	578	
Apples,......................	8	
Rice,.........................	$256,540	
Cotton,......................	432,687	
Tobacco, 40,602 hhds.,........	1,611,337	
Hops,........................	10,160	
Wax,.........................	18,340	
Household furniture,..........	430	
Soap,........................	3	
Snuff and manufactured tobacco,	32,031	
Spirits of turpentine,.........	2,378	
Lead,........................	10,479	
Nails,........................	311	
Spirits from molasses,.........	1,547	
Medicinal drugs,..............	2,909	
White piece goods,...........	284	
Wearing apparel,.............	129	
Books and maps,.............	1,525	
Articles not enumerated,......	27,344—	$3,174,483

Total exports to Hanse Towns,.. $3,566,687

Foreign exports,.. 392,204

Statement of the Number, Tonnage, (in Lasts,) and Crews of Vessels, belonging to each Country, which arrived at, and departed from, the Port of Hamburg, in the years 1836 *and* 1838.

COUNTRIES.	1836.						1838.					
	ARRIVED.			DEPARTED.			ARRIVED.			DEPARTED.		
	Vessels.	Lasts.	Crews.	Vessels.	Lasts.	Crews.	Vessels.	Lasts.	Crews.	Vessels.	Lasts.	Crews.
American,.........	39	5,632	450	37	5,495	446	41	5,460½	462	39	5,264	470
Belgian,...........	5	230	25	5	230	25	9	548	59	10	600½	66
Bremen,...........	81	4 550	414	75	4,185	372	113	3,375	424	113	3,375	417
Danish,...........	468	13,896	2,134	493	13,915	2,116	409	10,381½	1,456	375	9,495	1,335
British,...........	754	71,067	8,168	753	71,177	8,173	883	84,127	9,585	886	84,490½	9,622
French,...........	65	6,110	980	64	6,030	971	82	7,941½	1.287	82	7,941½	1,287
Hamburg,.........	291	19,731	2,381	282	20,048	2,388	319	25,551	2,498	317	25,725	2,487
Hanoverian,.......	383	7,113	1,286	385	7.284	1,315	438	8.192	1,455	436	8,003	1,441
Dutch,............	205	11,094	1,322	207	11,167	1,342	256	10,608½	1,379	249	10,330½	1,352
Lubec,............	1	40	5	..	..	..	4	340	36	4	340	38
Mecklenburg,......	13	1,270	104	11	1,095	92	5	350	32	5	350	30
Neapolitan,........	7	970	92	6	870	82						
Swedish&Norw'g'n,	164	7,529	1,098	155	7,019	1,033	152	7,338	1,267	148	7,050	1,242
Austrian,..........	8	1,242	98	9	7,019	105	6	957	75	5	802	64
Oldenburg,.........	105	1,686	280	101	1,628	270	98	1,480½	290	95	1,436½	280
Prussian,..........	35	4,860	842	40	5,713	392	35	[illegible]	321	34	5,227½	357
Russian,...........	3	262	27	4	309	27	8	646	73	9	825	90
Sardinian,.........	1	113	11	1	113	11	1	86	9	1	86	9
Spanish,...........	28	1,798	298	23	1,560	279	29	2,117½	364	29	2,129	382
Portuguese,........	..	..	..	..	..	..	16	1,210	169	16	1,210	169
Sicilian,...........	..	..	..	..	..	..	2	207½	22	2	207½	22
Venezuelian,.......	..	..	..	..	..	..	1	95	12	1	95	12
Total,........	2,656	159,193	19,515	2,651	159,030	19,440	2,907	175,674½	21,275	2,856	174,972½	21,172

Statement of the Total Quantities of Grain Imported and Exported at Hamburg, during each Year, from 1800 *to* 1838.

Years.	Imported.	Export'd.	Years.	Imported.	Export'd.	Years.	Imported.	Export'd.
	lasts.	lasts.		lasts.	lasts.		lasts.	lasts.
1800,....	44,850	31,515	1814,....	22,848	6,336	1828,....	36,898	23,957
1801,....	41,045	27,597	1815,....	20,032	8,122	1829,....	42,849	28,614
1802,....	36,216	15,177	1816,....	20,261	14,813	1830,....	57,459	39,674
1803,....	24,637	8,426	1817,....	27,849	14,409	1831,....	46,588	35,639
1804,....	24,687	8,991	1818,....	41,883	29,417	1832,....	29,957	18,830
1805,....	27,603	12,274	1819,....	27,203	16,018	1833,....	31,897	14,508
1806,....	36,577	13,632	1820,....	25,965	12,377	1834,....	25,651	11,500
1807,....	18,080	5,848	1821,....	21,710	7,397	1835,....	18,764	8,719
1808,....	22,691	7,861	1822,....	22,807	7,881	1836,....	35,120	19,260
1809,....	20,363	5,224	1823,....	20,179	11,537	1837,....	34,199	18,251
1810,....	23,332	9,874	1824,....	29,471	14,401	1838,....	44,867	31,730
1811, ...	21,695	5,574	1825,....	39,281	24,582	1839,....		
1812,....	19,080	8,829	1826,....	34,183	27,885	1840,....		
1813,....	13,106	3,439	1827,....	29,992	19,211	1841,....		

The number of vessels belonging to Hamburg this year (1842) is 202, measuring 49,450 tons. In 1840, there were only 193 vessels: 3 are now building.

The following is a statement of the leading articles, imported in 1841:

Coffee, imported in 1840,....................	62,500,000	lbs.
Ditto " 1841,....................	72,000,000	"
Stock on hand, at the end of 1841,.............	15,000,000	"
Sugar, imported in 1840,......................	101,500,000	"
Ditto " 1841,......................	80,000,000	"
Stock on hand, at the end of 1841,.............	19,500,000	"
Cotton, imported in 1840,....................	74,083	bales.
Ditto " 1841,....................	64,022	"
Stock on hand, at the end of 1841,............	16,400	"
Twist, imported in 1841,....	39,000,000	lbs.
Indigo " 1840,.....................	7,000	chests.
Ditto " 1840,.........	580	serons.
Ditto " 1841,.....................	7,400	chests.
Ditto " 1841,.....................	300	serons.
Stock on hand, at the end of 1841,............	290	chests.
" " "	250	serons.
Teas, imported in 1840,.......................	12,930	qr. chests.
Ditto " 1841,.......................	12,270	"
Stock on hand, at the end of 1841,............	7,000	"
Wool, imported in 1840,......................	63,000	bales.
Ditto " 1841,...........	60,000	"
Stock on hand, at the end of 1841,.............	3,500	"

Principal Articles of Import in 1838.

Tobacco, coffee, sugar, train-oil, cotton, cotton yarn and twist, wine, tea, rice, hides, indigo, pepper, tar, butter, cheese, (1836,) tallow, rape oil, linseed oil, hemp oil, iron, bar and plate, &c., &c.

Number of Vessels which arrived at the Port of Bremen during the Year 1841.

NATION.	Number of Vessels.	Number of Tons.	Number of Men.
British,	34	3,929	233
Bremen,	337	77,989	3,981
Hamburg,	8	933	50
Hanover,	178	12,739	791
Oldenburg,	254	25,334	1,414
Denmark,	90	4,455	317
France,	1	78	6
Holland,	79	5,435	304
Prussia,	8	2,507	115
Russia,	7	1,160	56
Spain,	3	448	27
Sweden,	26	3,276	183
Norway,	33	2,205	160
United States of America,	32	9,349	384
Total,	1,090	149,837	8,021

Of the above there arrived from the United Kingdom, 22 British, 67 Bremen, 5 Hamburg, 72 Hanover, 133 Oldenburg, 2 Danish, 2 Dutch, 3 Prussian, 1 Russian, 2 Norwegian—Total of vessels from the United Kingdom.

The British vessels which arrived from other than British ports were,

1 of	97	tons from	Ionian Islands,
2	206	"	Canary Islands,
2	305	"	Cuba,
1	106	"	Hayti,
4	613	"	Brazil,
1	184	"	Sincapore.

Of Bremen vessels—	67	arrived from	Great Britain,
"	16	"	France,
"	97	"	United States,
"	18	"	Russia,
"	2	"	South Sea Whale-fishery,
"	29	"	Cuba,
"	14	"	Hayti,
"	13	"	Porto Rico,
"	5	"	Saint Thomas,
"	8	"	Brazils,
"	16	"	South America,
"	3	"	East Indies,

The rest from other places,

Number of Vessels, which departed from the Port of Bremen, during the Year 1841.

Nations to which they belong.	Number of Vessels.	Number of Tons.	Number of Men.
Great Britain,	33	3,824	227
Bremen,	334	78,177	3,952
Hamburg,	14	1,914	98
Hanover,	205	13,974	857
Oldenburg,	256	25,796	1,434
Denmark,	90	4,300	318
France,	1	78	6
Holland,	93	6,417	372
Prussia,	7	2,402	108
Russia,	8	1,235	60
Spain,	3	448	27
Sweden,	25	3,105	172
Norway,	28	1,898	134
United States of America,	34	9,816	405
Total.	1.131	153,384	8,171

Of the above there sailed to Great Britain 30 British, 81 Bremen, 7 Hamburg, 89 Hanover, 120 Oldenburg, 5 Danish, 1 Prussian, and 7 American. Total, 340 vessels.

Of the Bremen vessels departed, the principal were, for Great Britain 81, Gibraltar 3, Prussia 6, Russia 15, Spain 5, Sweden and Norway 25, United States of America 86, Cape Verd Isles 5, Cuba 28, Hayti 11, St. Thomas 11, Porto Rico 8, Venezuela 9, Brazils 8, Mexico 8, Buenos Ayres 3, Valparaiso 3, Calcutta 1, Sincapore 1, Sumatra 1.

The sea-going vessels belonging to the Port of Bremen in 1841 were, in number, 212, of which 80 were 300 tons and upwards.

THE PROVINCIAL CURRENCY OF MARYLAND.

The currency of any State or community, may be considered as the best single index of the advance of such a community in general civilization, at any epoch. To the mere cambist it shows (so to speak) the implements of commerce for the place and time, and thus indicates the development of that branch of human activity, and the rank which the given community holds in regard to others; just as the quantity, quality, and arrangement of his tools, betoken the standing of the artisan. And the student of history and the lover of the philosphy that history teaches, when he has ascertained the character of such a current medium, its basis and its convertibility, need not fail to draw conclusions of a higher kind as to social relations and worth. Even the form and material employed, demonstrate the condition of the arts, and the accomplishments of the people who employ them.

It is in this view that the statements which we propose to throw together, touching the Provincial and Revolutionary Currency of one of the Old Thirteen, may be expected to have interest for more than one class of readers. The period of research is not so extensive as to run the risk of being fatiguing, nor so remote as to bedim with much antiquity. Were it, however, either wider or older, or both, it might be not the less fit to teach now some valuable lessons; for it is hardly to be doubted that the exploration of times past was made in the constitution of our nature so attractive as it is, not that eyes should fail and life be wasted for antiquity, which can grow neither better nor worse for the devotion, but that from its sandy pyramids and silent crypts the torches of the explorers should reflect their light upon the living Present, to guide its footsteps safe as it sinks into the Past. In this way, the fate and issue of strained Provincial credit may be a warning, and more, to struggling State faith.

It is not our aim here, however, to discuss the subject in this light, or to deal in such political generalities: we shall only present the prominent particulars and facts, leaving the deductions to be drawn at some more favourable moment hereafter.

The Province of Maryland was actually settled, as is generally known, in 1634; and the currency which the colonists brought with them was the sterling coin of Great Britain, as it was then. This sterling coin continued, too, for one hundred and fifty years and more, to be the base of all their financial calculations, and the standard by which, virtually, were regulated all the various forms of their local exchanges. Taking the silver coinage of Great Britain to represent the sterling money, it underwent itself no change during all this period—the alloy and weight suffered, or at least were intended to suffer, no variation. But in reckoning the trans-Atlantic exchanges by the English GOLD coins, considerable allowances must be made for the alterations that, from time to time, were made, both in the fineness of the metal and in the denominations of the pieces struck. For instance, in 1620, (17 Jac. I.,) about the time that the Calvert charter was in embryo, a pound troy of standard gold was worth thirteen pounds four ounces three pennyweights of standard silver: forty odd years afterwards, in 1663, (15 Car. II.,) when the first guineas were struck, and were rated at 20 shillings, one pound of gold was raised to be worth 14 lbs. 5 ozs. 16 dwts. 9 grs. of silver. When the guineas were rated, subsequently, (from 1717, as long as any were coined,) at 21 shillings, the value of gold was proportionately augmented; and the coinage price became 15 lbs. 2 oz. 10 dwts. 7 grs. of standard silver for the pound of gold. These relative values may be considered as being maintained during the whole of the remaining period embraced in this article. For convenience of reference, they may be arranged in a table as follows, down to the present time:

				Gold.	Silver.
17 Jac. I.,	1620,	equal weight,	worth	13.346	1
15 Car. II.,	1663,	"	"	14.485	1
4 Geo. I.,	1717,	"	"	15.210	1
14 Geo. III.,	1773,	"	"	15.073	1
Regency,	1816,	"	"	14.159	1

The last ratio did not arise in any alteration made in the gold coin, but in the silver: the mint struck then 66 shillings out of the pound troy of silver, instead of 62, as had been done for more than two hundred years preceding.

Such was the currency which the colonists brought with them to Maryland. But it may be conceived that, under the circumstances, they did not bring along any large quantity of the coinage; and the scarcity of money, therefore, among them, and the small amount of return trade which they were in a condition to make with the mother country, necessarily rendered exchange upon England, or the price of specie for remittance there, very high. This, then, produced a *current* value for such specie above its sterling or *intrinsic* worth. In fact, exchange soon became from 25 to 33⅓ per cent. These rates are shown in the first act relating to money passed after the settlement of the Province. It was an act of 1st May, 1661, "concerning the setting up of a mint in the Province of Maryland;" in which, after saying that the want of ready money is a great hindrance to the advancement of the colony in trade, is prayed that the Lord-Proprietary (Lord Baltimore) would take order for the coining of money in the Province. It then enacts that the money coined should be of sterling alloy, and that every shilling so coined should weigh above ninepence of such silver, and other pieces in proportion.

In Folkes' Table of English Silver Coins, we find mention of this currency: it is described as consisting of very handsome shillings, half-shillings, and groats, (the old Saxon shilling, or four-penny piece,) all of which wanted, however, better than two pennies in the shilling of the weight of the corresponding English pieces. From the way in which Folkes speaks, we may suppose that he had seen and examined them. They may be still in some curious private cabinet in England, (there are none in the magnificent collection of the Bank of England,) but in this country they have long since passed out of existence.

Perhaps the subsequent steps in relation to these coins were not such as to render their acquisition or retention the most palatable. In the following year, 1662, when they had been begun to be struck, an act required every householder and freeman in the Province to take up ten shillings per poll for every taxable under their charge and custody, and to pay for the same in good cashed tobacco at 2d. per pound. We do not know what tobacco was worth in this year, exactly; but the price in the law was rather less than the average market price of that article during the five-and-twenty years preceding. The difference was most likely designed to compensate the Proprietary for his expense in procuring the bullion and establishing and working the mint. However this might be, the law lasted in practice but four years; and in 1676, at the time of the First Codification, it was formally repealed. The mint law proper of 1661 was at the same time confirmed, and made perpetual; though, from the language of Folkes, who speaks of the coins which he had seen as much anterior to this date, it is quite probable that the period of this formal perpetuation of the establishment was, also, the epoch of its inactivity. At all events, the Maryland coins are not mentioned in an act passed ten years afterwards, (in 1686,) expressly for "the advancement of coins." By this last, the New England shillings and sixpences, of which Folkes, also, gives some particulars, and which were intrinsically worth 9d., were rated at a shilling; Spanish pieces of Eight, which were actually worth 4s. 6d., were to be taken at 6s.; and so with all other coins, foreign or not foreign, (except base coin,) an advance was legalized of 33⅓ per cent. on their intrinsic value. The coins, *not foreign*, spoken of here, were not those made in the domestic mint only; but more emphatically, as is attested in various instances of legislation, those struck in the mother country. It may be readily understood that *sterling* money could never be foreign in Maryland till after the Revolution.

There was one distinction made by this law, which serves still more to mark, the history and actual state of the Maryland coinage. All the moneys advanced by it, the New England pieces, the rix dollars, the Spanish dollar, etc., were not to be taken at such advanced rates by the Lord-Proprietary in payment of his rents, alienations, etc., as had been admitted for the Maryland coins by the act of 1661.

In 1688–9, under the Protestant accession of William and Mary, the Province was sequestered to the crown; and the exercise of palatinate powers in working a mint, of course, slept among many lower (but perhaps not less profitable) privileges, that were wrested from the Proprietary. At first, the rates which had been established under his government for foreign coins, were still accepted in the legislation under the the Royal prerogative. An act of 1692 settles the rates in the same manner as the act of 1686. But the subsequent steps are rather curious, and more curious than explicable. After the settlement made in 1692, an act of 1694 repealed the former. Then came the act of 1699, which may be regarded as the Second Codification, and by omitting both, confirmed, in fact, the repeal. But this act was, during the same year, *dis-*

sented from by the King, and so never became a law. Why it was so dissented from, does not appear; for, in 1700, precisely the same code was enacted again, and met the King's assent.

The most natural construction to put upon this tissue of legislative mutability, is, that the coin-rates were all the while practically accepted by the people, and intended to be allowed by the authorities in England, though they did not choose to leave the statute a formal recognition, that contained at the same time a reservation of the old Proprietary domination which had been overthrown. This supposition is confirmed by what took place place afterwards.

In June, 1704, a proclamation of Queen Anne, for ascertaining the rates of foreign coins in her Majesty's plantations in America, fixed the value of the principal coins on the same scale which had been adopted in Maryland in 1686; but that proclamation not being found sufficient to prevent the inconveniences arising from the different rates of exchange in the other Provinces, an act of Parliament of the same tenor was passed in 1707. This act was echoed, in 1708, by the Maryland Legislature, which copies from the former a table of weights, intrinsic value in English standard silver, and legal provincial value of divers European and Spanish-American pieces.

This table contains an enumeration of a greater variety than one might have supposed, otherwise, likely to have been in circulation in the plantations, and of some which have long since gone out of use. Such are, for instance, the *cross dollar*, which was not a Portuguese piece, as is sometimes stated, but a coin of Flanders. It will be found in Sir Isaac Newton's tables of assays, published in 1719, and again in 1740. Such, also, was the *dog dollar*, "than which," it is said in the act of 1808, "there is at present little other money in the Province, and the inhabitants are not so well acquainted with other foreign coins." This appears to have been the old Löwen thaler, or lion dollar, of Holland. It was known in Virginia as the *Dutch dollar*.

The scarcity of the precious metals, spoken of in this act, must have been very great, in spite of the high current rates given to prevent exportation. It is not, therefore, strange that persons should have been tempted to use unlawful means for supplying the demand. Accordingly, just about this time, there appears to have been considerable forging and counterfeiting of foreign coins. An act of 1707 is the first trace of such offences being made penal. The penalties in this act apply also to *clipping* coins; but, little more than twenty years afterwards, a supplement (of 1729) recites that "coins, both of gold and silver, do at this time pass current by weight, and not by tale as heretofore, whereby the mischiefs of clipping are effectually prevented; *and seeing that the cutting or clipping of foreign coins is now in some measure necessary for the making of change*," relieves the penalty. It was under this law, or rather under the state of things which this law was intended to meet, that the *sharpshins*, a sort of change that many persons still living can recollect as being current, were introduced. These were nothing more than the Spanish dollar and half-dollar, (to which coin the practice seems to have been chiefly, if not entirely, confined—at least we have never seen them of any other kind,) cut up into quadrants, and representing, respectively, the quarter, or peceta, and the real. From the right-angled point at the centre of the original coin, these quadrants were rightly named *sharp*; the remaining word is probably a corruption in pronunciation of *change*, as if the proper word was intended to be *sharp-change*.*

Such a practice, however, by no means tended to diminish the evil, as perhaps was seen; for, at the same time, another act provided a further encouragement to the importation of gold and silver into the Province, by allowing, in all payments of duties, (except those specially attributable to the Lord-Proprietary, who, since the Hanoverian succession, in 1715, had been restored to his rights,) a further premium of 15 per cent. over and above the 33⅓ per cent. advance allowed to coins by the law of 1708. This, in fact, corrresponded to an advance of 53⅓ per cent. on sterling money—a rate which may be presumed, from other circumstances, to have been above that of the actual exchange on England at the time. To avail of this further advance, it was only necessary that the shipper or importer should declare, under oath, that the specie paid had been imported by him for his own use, not bought within the Province with the view to such avail, and was, to the best of his knowledge, then in the Province for the first time. It must be admitted that the requisitions were sufficiently comprehensive.

So the rates continued, by law, until very nearly the decease of the Proprietary Government. In 1773, the last Assembly but one under that Government, in an act providing for payment of the Journal of Accounts, incidentally rates the Spanish dollar (which, in 1686, was assumed to be intrinsically worth 4s. 6d. sterling, and was then, and again in 1708, advanced one-third, or to 6s. in money of account) at 7s. 6d., thus advancing it two-thirds above its intrinsic value, and just doubling the former premium. In 1781, after the Independence of the States had been declared, a special act for fixing the value of foreign coins settles the same rates—which were ever afterwards adhered to, as long as accounts were kept in pounds, shillings, and pence. It is likely that this appreciation of the dollar had been going on, in popular estimation and habit, for some time before the Legislature, even at the earliest epoch that has been given, (1773,) saw fit to sanction it. For a long time previous, exchanges on Great Britain had been enormously high: 45 per cent. was the rate at which the commissioners of the public funds were authorized to purchase bills as a financial operation. Then the Province was harassed for subsidies of men and money in behalf of the Indian and French wars, which were carrying on upon its western frontiers; and in the interval between the two epochs, the State was in the thickest of the war of the Revolution. At that period, specie was hardly to be had for any difference. The emissions of Continental and local paper money, which were resorted to for supplying its place, by no means contributed to restore the equilibrium; and the diminution of agricultural products, from the absence of those who should have tended them, and the destruction of manufactured ones in the devouring recklessness of prolonged hostilities, caused a scarcity in the necessaries of life, in itself enough to account for a great reaction upon the symbols of credit.

How the Legislature came to settle down upon the precise advance which was ultimately adopted, is more conjectural than the fact of their having done so. That it was not entirely arbitrary, or induced merely by the facility of the count, (it just doubled the ratio which had been familiar since a century before,) is hardly to be supposed; and various solutions, counter to such supposition, might be offered. One is, that it grew out of the modifications of the *tobacco currency*, of which we shall speak more intelligibly, presently, in its proper place. Another, which, if not the most probable, at least presents the most curious coincidence, is, that it was derived from the accidents of the Spanish coinage itself, in the following manner:

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* If this etymon be admitted, it will account for the derivation of another phrase in currency matters—*shin-plaster;* which will turn out, thus, to have been a much-abused word, and to have had originally no concern with the tibial developments and lacerations of man or beast.

The so-called *old plate* dollar weighed, or was intended to weigh, 420 grains, as is set forth in the table of both the statute of 6 Ann. and the Maryland act of 1708: the *new plate* of Seville, which gradually ousted the old, weighed but 336 grains. The former, intrinsically worth in sterling 4s. 6d., was accepted by statute at 6s. The latter, though intrinsically worth little more than 3s. 7d., was yet accepted by the people as a Spanish dollar, (and the more readily, as the other more valuable dollars became more scarce,) and rated accordingly at 6s. too. If, then, a dollar weighing 336 grains be rated at 6s., one weighing 420 grains (the alloy* being so nearly the same in both cases as to be regarded identical) should be rated at 7s. 6d., which is just the currency authorized by the new act.

This currency continued to be legalized by successive acts, until long after the time of which we are speaking: it was only formally superseded by the act of 1812, recognising the coins struck at the United States mint and the values assigned by Congress to various foreign coins, among which those of England now came to be reckoned.

From the statutes which have been mentioned, and particularly that of 6 Ann., may be seen the origin of the count by which the American dollar is reckoned at 4s. 6d. sterling, and the pound sterling of Great Britain at $4 44$\frac{4}{9}$. It was no doubt the intention of the Board of Treasury, upon whose report of 8th April, 1786, the Confederated Congress of the same year adopted the weight and proportions of the national money unit, to take for that unit the equivalent of the Spanish dollar, which, as we have seen, had been long and generally assumed to be worth intrinsically 4s. 6d.; and had the Board taken the very Spanish dollar which gave rise to the acceptation, and made the new coin of the same weight and alloy, their subsequent calculations would have been correct—for that dollar, as the statute shows, weighed 420 grains: it was of silver, 11 dineros and 1$\frac{1}{3}$ grain (or 0.9208$\frac{1}{3}$) fine, and it therefore contained 386$\frac{3}{4}$ troy grains of pure silver. The English shilling (or twentieth of the pound sterling) of the same epoch, and of which 62 were struck out of the pound troy, weighed 92.904 grs. troy; and being of metal 11 ozs. 2. dwts. fine, contained 85.936 grs. troy of pure silver. Taking these respective weights in round numbers at 387 grs. and 86 grs., (and both the Legislature and the mint no doubt did so, for the differences were much within the means for delicate weighings at that day,) the former is exactly four and a half times the latter; and the Spanish dollar, therefore, really contained as much pure silver as four and a half shillings of English money.

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* The alloy of the *old* plate was 1 dwt. worse, that of the *new* 1$\frac{1}{2}$ dwt. worse, than sterling; or, in fact, the proportions of pure silver contained in equal weights of the three standards, were 0.92083, 0.91875, and 0.925, respectively, without allowance for remedy.

But the dollar current, during the existence of the Board of Treasury, was of the coinage of 1772. Its weight, possibly, may have been intended to have been the same with the former; computed as well as may be from the Spanish weights, it should be of 418.39 troy grains; and the alloy having been now changed to 10¾ dineros, (or 0,8958⅓) fine, the piece contained but 374.81 troy grains. It gave as much pure silver, therefore, as 4s. 4⅓d. of English money. The dollar deduced by the Board and adopted by Congress, contained 375.64 troy grains of pure silver; and it was intrinsically equivalent to 4s. 4½d. sterling, very nearly. Of such dollar, the pound sterling was worth $4 57½ very nearly, instead of $4 44$\frac{4}{9}$, as was estimated.

In fact, then, the Board seem to have taken in their calculations for the mint and coinage the actual dollar of 1772, and for the revenue and commerce of the United States the no longer existing dollar of 1707. How they came to make such a mistake, would lead us too far away from our aim to inquire. It would turn out little creditable to their research, if it should appear that they had confounded the rates of alloy in England for gold and silver coins; it would be still less creditable to other qualities of higher moment, if knowingly the pound sterling had been undervalued at a period of heavy indebtedness from citizens of the United States to those of England. But whatever might have been the fault or the excuse then, the latter is still less now; when, after repeated changes in the mint here, as well as one in Great Britain, the old ratio, which has ceased to be applicable for more than a century, is still formally maintained.

To return, however, from this digression, to the Maryland currency again, we have already traced the coins, the fundamental portion of it, as the name implies, (the *κοινη* or *common* symbol,) through their most important modifications. It remains that we give some particulars as to the remaining portions, which the colonists either used because they found it in the country when they came, or resorted to when compelled by the necessities or prompted by the ingenuity of a more advanced stage of society.

Among the former of these, was the currency of marine shells; variously known, according to the different species of shell employed, as *roenoke*, *peak*, and *wampum*. These appear to have been the only media of exchange used by the Indians at the time of the English settlement of America; and it is probable that they served, also, for other purposes, such as, for instance, a token in the diplomatic intercourse of different tribes. Some have supposed that neither the article nor its employment was known to the aborigines north of New York, until European intermediation. If this were so, it would afford, one would think, the strongest argument for a difference of origin and race, in the several tribes in different portions of the continent, which has yet been found. And such an argument could only be obviated, upon the fact being admitted, by a resort to the hypothesis (which we confess seems quite tenable) that the application to trade and commerce of an article originally for ornament, and thence used upon occasion as a pledge of friendship or token of reconciliation either between individuals or between tribes, was taught the simple red men by their European invaders. But be this as it may, the colonists in Maryland can have no title to the credit or discredit of this teaching; for the *peak* currency was fully established among the southern Indians at least at the period of their arrival.

Among the various species of shell employed for its preparation, the principal seem to have been the cockle, (*mya mercenaria,*) the conch, (*Pyrula carica,*) and the muscle, (*mytilus plicatulatus,*) corresponding in order to the names as already given. The *roenoke* was the least artificially made; broken pieces of cockle shell, roughly brought to a sort of uniformity of size, were pierced with a hole through the middle so as to fit them for being strung together. The *peak* proper, or *white peak*, and the *black* or *purple peak*, or *wampum*, or *wampum peak*, (for by all these names, still more varied according to the different notions of orthography, is it found described,) differed more in colour and species of material than in shape; both were fashioned like bugle beads, about a quarter of an inch in diameter and a third of an inch long, made perfectly smooth on the outside, and bored through to admit the passage of a deerskin thread. This description, not half so minute as some of the colonial writers have made, will be supererogatory for such of our readers as have seen a modern wampum belt or even a chief's moccasin.

When strung together, the *peak* of both kinds, as well as the *roenoke*, was reckoned by some measure of length—the foot, the yard, etc.; which serves to point to the original motive of making it—namely, as a part of apparel. So in 1637, upon the occasion of the first Clayborne troubles, and when the property of that adventurer was seized by the authorities at Palmer's Island, the schedule returned recites, among other things, "six *yards* of peak and one *yard and a half* of roenoke." And again, ten years later, upon the occasion of the claim by the interloping Governor Hill for arrearages of salary, etc., he says, in one of his letters: "The remainder of the levy I hope you will see satisfied, and my 146 *arms length* of roenoke." It is true that this last was sometimes estimated by measures of capacity; so, for instance, in the excuse made for the refusal in marriage of the sister of Pocahontas, it was said that a dower had been already paid by a native suiter, of two *bushels* of roenoke. There is no trace of this method in Maryland, as far as we know.

The value of this currency has not been directly ascertained; indeed it would be only incidentally gathered from the colonial records. In Virginia, about 1640, the white peak is said to have been valued at ninepence, and the wampum at eighteen pence, per yard; if the beads were uniformly one-third of an inch long, the yard would be equal to 108 beads, and 12 beads of the former and 6 of the latter would be respectively worth a penny. Forty years later, upon the occasion of the Albany proclamation, both kinds appear to have fallen to one-third of this value.

At this last date, this currency was most probably extinct in Maryland. It never had been recognised in any statute; and although it may have continued in use among the Indians themselves to a comparatively late period, (the Nanticokes, for example, who held their settlements on the eastern shore of the Chesapeake till long after the Revolution,) there is reason to infer from the terms of the Susquehanna treaty of 1652, that at that time it had ceased to be acknowledged as between the Indians and Europeans, and that its place was supplied by something of more intrinsic value.

Longer-lived than this was the *tobacco currency;* which, as a remarkable instance of permanence and uniformity in the price of an article of extensive consumption and in the employment of such an article for a medium of exchange, would deserve a more curious inquiry and more minute details than we have room for now.

The, perhaps, questionable honour of being the native soil of a plant so well known, and so used or abused by a not inconsiderable proportion of the human race, is generally conceded to the middle regions of the new continent; at all events, they were the nursery whence it was introduced to European favour. The name by which it is most generally known comes either from Tobago, in the West Indies, or Tobasco, in Mexico; whence it was carried first to England in 1586. It had been in Europe for a generation before, brought in seed, as is supposed, from Florida; and the botanical name of the genus (*Nicotiana*) still preserves the memory of the Ambassador *Nicot*, who busied himself to grow or recommend the new plant. The high quarters where he looked to obtain for it encouragement, are attested by the appellation (*herbe a la Reine*) still given to it in France; and the efficiency of their patronage, or his, is proved by more languages than the French only. But among all the essays which have been made for and against it, we believe that no where has the credit been yet given to it of having been, by a singularly contrasted destiny, at once a luxury for Europe, and cash in America.

The rate at which it was current on both continents was, in the beginning of the 17th century, sufficiently high. In 1618, in Virginia, it was allowed for at *three shillings* sterling the pound. If this was the price of the common kinds, the dying consolation of poor Raleigh must have been rather a costly resort.

The first notice of its value in Maryland we do not find until twenty years afterwards, (1639,) when, in a law for the punishment of drunkenness, the fine is set at 30 lbs. of tobacco, or five shillings sterling. Hence its value was two pence sterling per pound, equal to $3\frac{7}{10}$ cents of the Spanish dollar. Since we have mentioned the object of the law, we may notice also its remarkably terse and accurate description of the offence it was aimed against; it defines drunkenness to be "*drinking in excess, to the notable perturbation of any organ of sense or motion.*" It is doubtful if the temperance societies of the present day have, any of them, announced so true and short a criterion.

This valuation might quite possibly have been made low in order to induce prompt payment in coin; for another law of the same year rates five pounds of tobacco as one shilling sterling; making the pound worth $2\frac{4}{10}$d. sterling. This last price agrees with inferences that may be drawn from the language of preceding documents. The rate at which tobacco was allowed for in payment of rents on Kent Island, in 1640, viz, three pence sterling a pound, was clearly in the nature of a premium.

About twenty years afterwards, it fell still further, to two pence currency per pound, as is shown in the law of 1662, already referred to, providing for the circulation of the provincial coin which had been struck the preceding year. There was a law in 1669, regulating the payment of money debts in tobacco; but it was repealed in the First Codification: and the record of it, upon a search which we caused to be made, is no longer accessible.

In 1671, tobacco was rated in payment of quit-rents to the Lord-Proprietary at two pence *sterling* the pound; but this was, no doubt, like the Kent Island rents, thirty years before, designed as a premium for prompt payment. And this is the more to be inferred from the terms of the dispute, which grew a long time after out of this very law, as we shall see.

The title of this law was for the support of the Proprietary; and its enactment was a duty of two shillings sterling per hogshead of tobacco exported, (the hogshead weighed at that time from 400 to 500 lbs. nett,) one half of which was to be expended for public uses and benefit, the other half to be the private revenue of the Proprietary. After the Revolution of 1688, this duty was collected by the crown, at first; but on Lord Baltimore's representation, he obtained an order, or rather repeated orders, to pay over the *shilling* per hogshead to him, claiming it as a matter of private contract, and specially intended to cover the loss which his father, Cœcilius, was expected to make in commuting his rents for tobacco at two pence sterling the pound. Neither the claim nor the order in council were at all palatable to the good Protestants of the colony; and a dispute was carried on, rather acrimoniously on their side, which was mixed up with some other points regarding a tonnage duty of 1661, (affirmed by Lord Baltimore to have been a *port* duty, and so a private emolument of his own, while the Assembly maintained it should have been written *fort* duty, and so have been applied to purposes of public safety,) and was not finally settled until 1715, when the Assembly agreed to give eighteen pence per hogshead instead of twelve, provided the quit-rents should be left payable in tobacco at two pence sterling the pound. Various other commutations were subsequently made and unmade, with which we have here nothing to do. As for the question between the *port* duty and the *fort* duty, that was never settled as long as there was any Proprietary Government. It is clear from all this, however, that two pence sterling was more than the value of the tobacco at the time it was agreed to, and that between that time and 1715, there had been a depreciation of at least one-third.

Accordingly, we find it fixed in this year (1715) at 10 shillings currency per 100 lbs., or $1\frac{2}{10}$d. (equal $1\frac{1}{3}$ cents of the Spanish dollar) per pound; and at this rate it continued during the whole remaining period of its existence as a currency, that covered very nearly a hundred years. It is true, that several acts are to be found, as well in the interval as back from 1715 to 1662, which, in incidental references to its comparative value, lead to various and discordant results: but they either apply to cases where, like some that have been mentioned before, the variation was intentional, and sometimes in favour of the debtor and sometimes against him; or copy the phrase of an older law, which corresponded to an older value of the article: or finally show upon their face that the aim was merely round and easily remembered numbers, not arithmetical precision. So, for instance, on the same day, in 1686, were passed acts, one of which, in regard to *fees at landings*, rates the pound of tobacco at a penny sterling, or $1\frac{7}{8}$ cents of our money nearly, while the other makes *officers fees* and *tavern-keepers' bills* receivable in tobacco at 0.72d. currency or one cent per pound. Again, the act of 1729 makes 400 lbs. equal to 33s. 4d. *current* money; because the act of 1715 had treated the same quantity as equal to so much sterling. And again, in 1715, when one law makes the price of tobacco quite specifically 10 shillings per centum, or $1\frac{2}{10}$d. *currency* per pound, almost the very next chapter in regulating lawyers' fees, speaks of 2,000 lbs. as equivalent to £10 sterling or $1\frac{2}{10}$d. *sterling* per pound. And finally, the same section of one and the same act for the recovery of small debts, makes 600 lbs. equal to 50s. currency, and 100 lbs. equal to 10s. currency. But all these variations are so plainly explicable as to cast no doubt upon the historical deduction, which is thrown together here in one view :

Date.	Value per lb.		
	d. stg.	d. current.	cents.
1638,	2.4		4.44
1662,	1.5	2.0	2.78
1715,	0.9	1.2	1.67
1763,		1.2	1.67
1773,			1.67

In fact, this table might have been brought down with propriety to 1812 ; for it was only in that year that the tobacco currency was virtually abolished by the act recognising the coins of the United States, and declaring that all judgements, etc., should thereafter be rendered in federal money only. But the value of that and the older epochs, may be said to continue to the present day, even; for although a court of law would not enter up a judgement in phrase for so many pounds of tobacco, yet in awarding upon a contract where the choice or caprice of the parties had made the stipulations in tobacco, without a specific agreement as to price, the quantity of tobacco found due would be commuted in federal money at the still only legal rate of 1⅔ cents the pound. And in case of interest to be calculated upon such debt, it would be taken at eight per cent. per annum instead of 6 six per cent., agreeably to the statute of 1704, which thus distinguished the usury upon contracts and payments in the respective currencies.

About the time of this last mentioned act, the growth of the tobacco plantations had greatly increased. The curious *Thesaurus Geographicus* of Herman Mott, published in 1709, speaking of Maryland, says: "The main trade here is tobacco, so strong that few English care to smoke it, and yet it turns to better account than the sweet-scented of Virginia, being most esteemed in the northeast parts of Europe, whither vast quantities are sent, and it proves so advantageous that it encourages the inhabitants to increase their plantations, which are now so much improved that here is more tobacco thought to grow than in Virginia, though it be a later plantation." The culture met with occasional checks ; as, for instance, in the great drought of 1724, which destroyed the crops entirely. But as early as 1733, it had increased so rapidly, and as was natural with so much more aim after quantity than due regard to quality, that the Assembly in that year voted a sum of money, to be distributed in the rate of 30 shillings for each taxable head, to compensate for the burning of 150 lbs. of what is called *trash tobacco* that year and as much the next; thus paying for the withdrawal from market and absolute destruction of a bad article as much (and more, if the years interest on 15 shillings be counted) as the legal value of the best. It must be conceded that in those days, our legislators had primitive but not the less just ideas of proper objects for the application of the public treasure.

It is probable that this method of improving the staple was discovered to be more costly than efficient, for it was not resorted to again. But in 1763, the same object was sought to be attained by the establishment of warehouses for inspection and deposite; and the carrying out of the law created in some sort another new currency, or at least a modification of the tobacco currency. The party owning the tobacco, at the time of carrying it to the warehouse and having it inspected, obtained from the inspector, notes specifying the quantity and quality of the tobacco so deposited. These notes were as numerous as the party chose to ask; and entitled the holder or holders, upon presentation at the warehouse, to receive the quantities specified on their face of the identical lot for which they had been given, or in some particular cases of its equivalent from some other lot. They became of course, and were so declared by the law, legal tenders and current for the value of all tobacco payments in the the county where the inspection lay. Notes of this sort continued to be current until after the beginning of this century.

Such are the principal particulars, which we have condensed as much as possible, of this remarkable currency. Before leaving it, we shall only advert to what has been already alluded to—the connexion of this with the specie currency and the part which it contributed in depreciating the nominal money-pound, until the Spanish dollar became worth not 72 but 90 pennies, or 7s. 6d. of that pound. The table given just now shows this at once. In 1662, when tobacco was valued at two pence currency the pound, the Spanish dollar, which contained 72 such pence, would purchase 36 pounds: in 1763, the first time the Spanish dollar is mentioned in connexion with tobacco at all, it is expressly said to purchase sixty pounds. The appreciation of the coin or the depreciation of the commodity, therefore, must be directly or inversely according as one or the other is taken for the unit, in the ratio of 36 to 60 or of 1 to 1⅔; which is just the proportion of 4s. 6d., the intrinsic worth of the Spanish dollar, to 7s. 6d., its later current value. This result shows how completely, in all the finance ideas in Maryland, the pound of tobacco was accepted as the invariable unit of currency, and how the money currency fell with that. And it shows, also, what could hardly have been arrived at without it, that the later value of the dollar, first openly ascribed in 1773, and more emphatically legalized in 1781, begun in fact whenever first, that dollar purchased 60 pounds of good merchantable tobacco.

We pass now to the only remaining system of which we need speak in any detail—that of the *paper currency;* or, as the Legislative proceedings termed it, of the Emission of Bills of Credit. This system was resorted to, not long after the time when the increased planting of tobacco had in part brought down the price of that article from a penny-half-penny sterling to nine-tenths of a penny per pound, and had, as we have seen, affected the actual money of account in the same proportion. Whether the Government thought they were going to furnish a new currency more stable, does not appear; but one object certainly was to help the old by improving the merchantable quality of the article which constituted it.

The first public declaration in favour of this system was made in 1731; by an act for the emission of £36,000 current money (or £27,000 sterling) in bills of credit, and *for easing the inhabitants of this Province, etc.* But the Assembly appears to have felt itself on new ground which it was loth to tread upon its own responsibility or without encouragement; and it therefore appended to this law an unusual contingency. In general, all statutes passed by the Assembly and admitted by the Governor overtly or even *sub silentio*, were held to have the force of laws, unless *dissented from* by the Lord-Proprietary: but this one was not to go into effect until the special *assent* of the Proprietary had been obtained and published. The Lord-Proprietary was possibly as doubtful about the new policy as his Assembly; at all events, for some reason or other, the required assent was never given, and so the law was not carried into effect.

At the second session after this, however, a new act, under enlarged views, was passed; which was carried out. This authorized the emission of £90,000 currency (£67,500 sterling) in bills of credit, having thirty-one years to run; to be issued by Commissioners named by the Proprietary; and to be governed by certain safeguards and stipulations, which are detailed with great particularity. This emission, as was proposed for the former one, was for the easing of the inhabitants; and that easement was to be effected by the following applications of the money received for, or represented by the bills. First, the several county clerks were to pay, in proportion for each taxable poll, to such taxable or their next friend 30 shillings; for which was to be burned 150 lbs. of *trash tobacco* in 1734, and as much in 1735, under the superintendence of duly appointed *burners*, (who were to receive sixpence for each 150 lbs. so burned,) and under a penalty for non-performance. Secondly, £3,000 were to be spent in building a suitable government-house. Thirdly, £500 in each county for the erection of jails: hitherto, the cost of such erections had been levied at once, or at most in two years, upon the inhabitants of the county. Fourthly, £500 for the repair of the public buildings at Annapolis. And Fifthly, the balance was to be lent out by the commissioners, at four per cent. per annum, upon good personal or real security, under individual limits. This last was the most important easement.

But that old Assembly was wiser than they seem to have been in the same place about a hundred years later; and they, therefore, at the time of incurring the debt, provided, also, certain means of repayment. A duty of 1s. 3d. sterling, (equal to 1s. 8d. currency,) was laid upon every hogshead of tobacco exported for the next 31 years; payable in bills of exchange on England, which were to be immediately remitted there to three trustees, to be appointed by his Lordship, and by them invested in bank stock, in the name of the Province. Yearly returns of receipts and investments were to be made under oath of said trustees to the Assembly. Between 20th September, 1748, and 20th March, 1749, all bills brought to the office should be cancelled, and new bills issued to the holders for two-thirds of their amount. The remaining one-third was to be then paid in cash, i. e. in bills of exchange at 40 days' sight upon the trustees in London. In 1764, the bills of credit were to be all redeemed.

The objects contemplated by this emission, as far as they were defined by specific appropriations, were all attained; and there is full reason for believing that the other intentions were complied with too. But the system of borrowing once adopted, presented too many facilities not to be resorted to again in cases of real or supposed emergency. So, for instance, in 1735 and in 1737, the Journal of Accounts as it is called, (i. e. the expenses incurred or directly authorized by and on behalf of the Legislature,) was paid off in bills of credit; in 1740, an appropriation of £7,562 10s. in paper money was made for volunteers in the expedition against the Spanish West Indies under Admiral Vernon; in 1746, for encouraging the raising of troops against Canada, £5,400 was raised from the same source; and in 1754, £6,000 were issued for the defence of Virginia and the Indian frontier of the Province itself. It must be stated, however, in justice to the Government, that all these appropriations were only temporary loans from the credit office, and either in anticipation of certain ordinary revenue, or to be provided for (in every case within three years) by new and specific taxes. These provisions must have been all successful; for in 1747, there is a formal though incidental affirmation by the Assembly, that "the credit of the paper money hath been and ought to be kept up."

The intermediate cancelling of one-third at the end of fifteen years, and the issue of new notes for the remaining two-thirds, appear to have been complied with. We have before us now a bill for one shilling, dated 6th April, 1751; upon which is written, apparently in the same hand-writing with the filling-in of the date, the words *New Bill*. It is presumable, therefore, that it was a bill of the re-issue. At the date, there had been no authority for a new issue proper.

Five years afterwards, however, (in 1756,) such authority was given by an act for raising £40,000 currency for His Majesty's service in the French war; in which, both before and after the disasters of Gen. Braddock, the extraordinary military talents of our own Washington were so favourably displayed. This £40,000 was to be placed upon exactly the footing of the existing emission, running to the same time, secured in the same manner, and by additional duties and taxes, and to be redeemed alike. It was made up, indeed, of

£4,015 6s. Bills in the office, that had never been circulated.
5,984 14s. Bills that had been circulated and were now authorized to be re-issued, and
30,000 — New bills to be struck; which formed, in fact, the augmentation of the original issue, and brought the paper money of the Province to £120,000 currency, or, assuming the rate of the dollar to be as it still existed by law, to $400,000 Spanish money. After replacement of the £5,984 14s., which was first to be settled, all bills received at the office were to be retained and burnt, until the whole £34,015 6s. should be destroyed.

The objects of application of this new fund were set forth at the same time. First, £11,000 were to be applied to the erection and fortifying of Fort Frederick, as it was called afterwards, which was intended as a safe frontier post, and was meant to be impregnable to the Indians, or even their more civilized allies. The building of this fort was a special object of favour in the eyes of the then Governor Sharpe, who indulged himself occasionally in paying personal attention to it, and who, though not a military man by profession, received, and we may suppose, therefore, deserved the praises of Gen. Washington, both for its design and its execution up to the point when it was inspected by the latter. A part of its ruins are now to be seen in a field in Washington county. Secondly, what may serve to give an idea of the actual "form and pressure" of the times, £1,000 for scalps or prisoners, (the scalps were named first, however,) at the rate of £10 or $33 33 Spanish, a piece. Then £3,000 for negotiations with the Southern Indians, who were supposed to be friendly, and the diplomacy with whom was another favourite measure of Gov. Sharpe; and the remaining £25,000 were to be spent in carrying on actual military operations, in conjunction with the colonies of Pennsylvania, Virginia, and North Carolina.

But in the course of the same year, this expected conjunction failed, and no expedition was undertaken; the Assembly, therefore, which had adjourned to meet again in the fall, made a new distribution of the £25,000. An additional £2,400 was granted for Fort Frederick; £5,000 as a bounty towards the Royal American regiment, and provisions for its support in New York, under the Earl of Loudoun, who was in command there; and the balance was applicable to the enlistment of a troop of 300 rangers, to be employed on the western frontier, to the establishment of a magazine of arms and ammunition for the better defence of the Province, and to the payment for scalps or live Indians at the increased rate of £50 or $166 66 Spanish a piece to persons not employed in the army, and of £30 or $100 to those who were. Subsequently, in 1757, a part of this balance unexpended was applied to the carrying on of a small joint expedition with the other colonies. But these details are leading us away from our proper object; and we only add, in regard to this emission, that the duties and taxes for its redemption, in addition to the export duty on tobacco of 1733, were of a most comprehensive character, and indicate the fullest determination, as had been expressed ten years before, that the credit of the Province should be kept up. His Lordship's own manors were not exempted from the operation of the land tax, viz, one shilling per annum for every 100 acres; and the only unfavourable criticism that can be made upon this revenue measure, is upon the ground that those who professed the same religion with the wise and benevolent Cœcilius, the founder of the Province, were required to pay just double of the other landholders. The whole chapter containing the exposition of the new tax system is well worthy the study of modern legislators, similarly circumstanced with those old ones.

The time was now approaching for the redemption of the issues. Accordingly, as a provisory measure, (in 1762,) the commissioners were forbidden to lend out any bills of credit; but all that they received were to be retained. Gold and silver might be lent out as before. In 1765, when the 31 years had fully expired, counting from the date of actual issue, the Assembly provided "for limiting the time for sinking the paper bills of credit now current in this Province;" the treasurers of both shores were directed to pay over to the credit office all moneys in their hands except £500; the commissioners were to apply these and all other funds to the purchase of exchange on London, to be remitted to the trustees there; and on 1st April, 1766, the office was entirely to cease.

But when that time arrived, there was found to have been a sort of "faciles descensus averni;" to retrace steps once taken was the great difficulty. The office was actually shut up, and the redemption stopped; but a great deal of the currency was yet out, which people could not or would not bring in within the less than twelve months limited. This popular action, or inaction, of course, reacted upon the Legislature, and at the November session of that year, (1766,) it was found necessary to make arrangements for a virtual continuance of the system. An account of the public claims and of the funds to meet them was prepared, by which it appears:

The public debt amounted to 5,623,499¼ lbs. of tobacco, which, at 0.9d. sterling per lb., was equivalent to........................	£21,088 12s. 5½d. stg.
Besides, £19,481 1s. 2½d. nominal money, which, at the actual exchange of 40 pr. ct., was equal to	11,904 12s. 8¾d. stg.
Making altogether a sum of.........	£32,992 15s. 2d. stg.

Against this there was in the hands of the trustees in London, on 20th May, 1766:

Bank stock amounting to..................	£26,800 0s. 0d. stg.
Dividends uninvested,.....................	5,230 17s. 0d. stg.
In all,..............................	£32,030 17s. 0d. stg.

Showing less than £1,000 sterling balance to the debit of the Province.

But although its fiscal concerns were clearly in such a healthy condition as regarded the security of its creditors, there was yet, as we read in the accounts of the time, no specie hardly, and no public credit. The very emissions themselves had contributed to the former category; and the latter was in a measure attributable to local causes. For two years back, there had been a dispute between the two Houses of Assembly, originating in a claim made by the clerk of the Upper House, which was disapproved by the Lower. The Upper House sided with their officer, and the consequence was, that there had been no passage of the Journal of Accounts. The details of this difficulty are not worth pursuing, nor those of the settlement; it is sufficient that it was compromised by a reference to His Majesty in council, and the two Houses applied themselves to the re-invigoration of the public credit.

The mode adopted, recommended itself certainly on the ground of "*ease to the inhabitants*"—a favourite phrase in the Maryland statute book: there were no taxes levied beyond the ordinary ones, the extraordinary resorts in behalf of the late emission having expired by their own limitations. Instead, the bank stock was taken as the foundation of a new emission, in denominations of dollars and parts, which was to take the place of the old, yet outstanding, and be itself reduced in ten years, by bills of exchange then drawn on the trustees by a commissioner to be appointed for the purpose. The amount of the issue authorized was $173,733, or £39,090 sterling, very nearly; thus increasing the public debt by about £6,000, nearly, which the Assembly seems to have supposed would be met by the accumulation from dividends on the bank stock. In this they were fully warranted; for the bank dividends had been, since 1764, at the rate of five per cent. per annum, and in September, 1767, were raised to 5½ per cent. In 1769, the actual stock belonging to the Province was reported at £34,000, besides dividends uninvested.

To superintend the new issue, two commissioners were appointed; who were to attend at the office till June, 1767, for the purpose of exchanging bills and paying public creditors. At that time, the commissioners were to make a report of their proceedings for the Assembly; every thing was to be locked up in an iron chest, the keys of the two locks of which are to be delivered respectively to the President of the Senate and the Speaker of the House, the key of the room containing the chest to the Governor; upon the first Assembly after said 10th June, a committee is to take charge of the whole apparatus, the report and state examined, and the commissioners to be then discharged, if all be found right. Their functions of exchanging bills and paying creditors, were to be thenceforward performed annually by a committee of the Assembly.

We have before us now several of the notes of this issue, unlike in form and style to the old ones. Those old ones were of the size of a large bank note of the present day, with a vignette only on the left hand, as if they were to be cut out of a book, the arms of the Province in the upper left hand corner, the denomination of the note in figures in the lower, and same denomination in full on the top, with a blank line for the number reaching over to the right hand corner—all quite handsomely engraved, and apparently executed in England. The text recites, that "This indented bill of —— shall pass CURRENT for the sum herein mentioned in all PAYMENTS, according to the directions of an Act of Assembly. Dated at Annapolis," etc.

The new ones of 1767 are much smaller; none of them being above 4⅝ inches long by about 2⅞ wide. The vignettes are in wood, chiefly, (some look like lead,) sufficiently ill-cut to have been done in the Province; they are widest in the left hand, but extend round three sides of the note; the lower side is bordered with printers' edging, of various sorts. Like the former, they bear the arms of the Province; and there are sundry curious devices among other things for enabling those who cannot read to determine the denomination of the note. The text is printed; and, contrary to the practice of the present day, which is to encourage the best work in the service of the honest, in these notes are divers irregularities and mistakes, which appear to have been designed to operate upon the self-respect or incautiousness of counterfeiters. The text recites that "This indented bill of —— shall entitle the bearer hereof to receive bills of exchange, payable in London, in gold and silver, at the rate of four shillings and sixpence sterling per dollar for the said bill, according to the directions of an Act of Assembly of Maryland. Dated at Annapolis, this 1st day of January, Anno Domini, 1767."

The reverse of these bills is, also, ornamented with leaves and stems on a black ground. These seem to have been done in metal, and so worked off as to produce, in printers' phrase, only an enormous *monk*.

The paper of the old ones is thin, flexible, and tough: that of the new, thick, stiff, and likely to cut whenever folded. We have seen none of this issue under a dollar.

How far the reliance, of which we have spoken, upon the bank stock as the basis of these notes, would have been justified in fact, there was no opportunity of ascertaining experimentally. The period of calling them in, arrived during the Revolution; and, in the words of Chancellor Hansen, "a different kind of redemption has since taken place." It was not only a different kind of redemption, but a kind different *from* redemption: they were not redeemed at all.

However, at the period of which we are treating, this coming event had not cast any shadow before it; and two years afterwards (in 1769) the Assembly and people were prepared for a fresh emission of $318,000 in paper, not to circulate longer than April, 1782. The object of this issue was for making loans to citizens, only, on bond and security. No loans to any individual, either as principal or surety, were to exceed $4,000; and every obligor, as surety, must have a fee-simple estate of at least double the value of the sum lent, to ascertain which, the commissioners were authorized to search the county records without charge. It was, therefore, in fact, lending only on real estate. To carry this into execution, two commissioners were to be appointed by the Governor, and under their official name to have succession, to sue and be sued, etc. They were to give bond, with security, for faithful performance of their duties; among which were specially recited the salutary one of commencing an action in default of interest after three months; and if an action was not commenced within six months, the commissioners themselves were to be liable for the debt.

These commissioners were to succeed to all the powers of the Assembly committee in regard to bills of the second issue; the accounts and transactions for which, however, were to be kept separate from those of this, the third. The Assembly calculated that the second issue would be all redeemed by £24,000 of the bank stock and its accumulation; and they, therefore, direct the commissioners, whenever exchange is above par, to make loans, not in bills of credit, but in bills of exchange upon the trustees in London, provided the aggregate of such bills does not exceed £10,000, (the then balance of the stock,) which amount the trustees are authorized to dispose of to meet such drafts.

Obligors' bonds were dischargeable in bills of this emission or of the former, (which places the two emissions upon the same footing,) or in specie at its sterling proportionate value. This last clause was to induce payments in specie; but, as a set-off, such specie or bills of this emission were to be let out again at the value at which they had been received, until the last year, during which no loans were to be made. Bills of the second emission were not to be let out again at all.

The commissioners for this issue were the same individuals who had superintended the last, and the bills issued are in all regards similar. Some new furniture appears to have been obtained; but, in general, the emission may be said to be worse executed than the last. We have them in our sight, of all denominations from *one-ninth of a dollar* up to *eight dollars.*

In December, 1773, little more than four years after the last emission, a fourth issue was authorized of $480,000; $266,666⅔ of which were to be used for loans only, as under the former issue; $80,000 were appropriated to specific purposes of public utility, and at the disposal of future Assemblies; and the balance, or $133,333⅓, to be used in replacing torn or defaced notes—an object which, from the texture of the material employed, was by no means too largely allowed for. The same commissioners who superintended the former, were directed to take charge of this issue, and their existing bonds and securities were accepted for both. But one of them, Mr. Cowden, did not act; and the new notes are signed by William Eddis, then surveyor of the customs at Annapolis, and who, twenty years afterwards, acquired a greater notoriety by the publication (in 1792) of a large octavo, (now rare,) containing* "Letters from America, historical and descriptive, comprising occurrences from 1769 to 1777, inclusive," etc.

The appearance of this issue is similar to that of the last; but manifests a gradual deterioration in some of the furniture employed. The type is improved, and the paper, though stiff, is not quite as thick as the preceding. The phraseology is exactly the same, except the date, which is the 10th day of April, 1774. There is a greater irregularity in the size of the notes of different denominations than in any of the preceding issues, and we have examined specimens of all denominations from one-ninth of a dollar up to eight dollars.

This was the last emission under the Proprietary Government: the last Assembly under that government, indeed, was in session on the day of the date of the notes, and continued so for ten days afterwards. There was no subsequent issue until the one under the Provincial Convention, when the State had become independent in form, on the 26th July, 1775.

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* This will be found in the Warden Library, recently acquired for the State of New York, and now, we believe, in process of arrangement.

We can now present the dates of authorization, amounts, and some other particulars, in one view :

Emission.	Date.	Period.	Am't in £.	Am't in $.	Remarks.
First,.... ...	1733	31 years	90,000	....	Redeem'd and balance absorb'd in second emission.
Augmented,	1756	8 "	30,000		
Second,... ..	1766	10 "	....	173,733	Secured by £24,000 stg. Bank of Eng. stock and accumulation.
Third,.......	1769	12 "	....	318,000	Secured by bonds and mortgages.
Fourth,......	1773	8 "	....	266,667	Secured by bonds and mortgages.
				133,333	Substituted for same amount of third emission.
				80,000	Secured upon £10,000 stg. Bk. of Eng. stock and accumulation.
				971,733	
				133,333	substracted,
Leaves, as the actual aggregate,.....				$838,400	

The last column shows upon what the issues were founded, and how secured; and shows, besides, the commendable caution of the Maryland financiers of those days. Assuming the system to have gone on to its full period, the £24,000 sterling bank stock, compounded at five per cent. per annum, (and for seven years out of the ten the dividends were five and a half per cent.,) would have amounted to $173,695, and thus, as the Assembly stated, have absorbed the whole of the second emission, except $38; the loans, secured by bond and mortgage, would have been singularly managed, if they did not result, under all the safeguards with which the commissioners were armed, in at least the return of an amount equal to the principal, *plus* the expenses of issue and management, (which were but $27,960;) and against the $80,000 of the last emission applied to public expenditures, (partly the building of the State-House at Annapolis, partly the construction of a wagon road from Fort Cumberland to the nearest batteau navigation on the Ohio, and some other less prominent objects,) is to be placed the £10,000 sterling of bank stock, whose own accumulation would have made it, in 1782, at the same rate with the other lot, $92,397. So that the whole operation could not result otherwise (without fraud or embezzlement) than in a balance to the credit of the Province. In fact, all that part of the business managed here did turn out so. And yet the three last issues not only required no increased tax, but were preceded by a repeal of taxes, which were found unnecessary. All this only serves to show the wisdom and comfort of taking things in the proper time—which proper time, in the matter of getting into debt, is the very beginning or sooner.

The system, however, was not permitted to be carried out; the troubled times of a revolution, breaking out almost immediately after the circulation of the last emission, were not particularly well calculated to refine, or even nourish, moral principle; and the fate of such bills as were outstanding on 20th March, 1781, may be gathered from an act of that period—the second section of which declares, that after that date "no bills of credit issued by Congress, or *acts of Assembly during the old government*, or resolves of Convention, shall, within this State, be deemed paper money, or pass current, or be, in law or equity, a tender or payment for any debt, covenant, promise, contract, or agreement." But the steps which led to such an act, the disasters preceding and accompanying it, the refusal of the trustees in London (countenanced by the British Government) to account for or transfer the bank stock of the Province, the discussions about *black* money and *red*—all of which are necessary to an exact statement of the amount of money sunk, and a calm estimate of the amount of injustice done, by this act—belong properly to an account of the Revolutionary currency of Maryland, which we shall give, at some future time, in another number of our journal.

THE STATE OF TENNESSEE.

We have been very anxious to give to our readers some satisfactory accounts from this important State. We say important, because we have been led to believe the time is near at hand when her great mineral resources will not only be explored, but actually mined and brought to market.

That these, her resources, were very great, we have long well known, but have not been enabled to give to our readers any systematic account of them. We have now, however, the pleasure to lay before them part of the "Eighth Geological Report, made to the twenty-sixth General Assembly of the State of Tennessee, November 1st, 1845, by G. Troost, M. D., Geologist to the State."

It gives us the more pleasure to enrich our pages with this extract, because it is an examination of the ground with a view to a railroad from Chattanooga, on the Tennessee river, to Nashville. As it will speak fully for itself, we here insert it without further comment, satisfied that in so doing we shall give great pleasure to the citizens of the Atlantic States, who will, with us, rejoice at the information it contains of the quantities of coal, iron, limestone, &c., with which, what Professor Troost calls, the southern part of their coal region, abounds.

In conclusion of these few remarks, we would express our warmest thanks to the Professor for the copy of the Report he was so kind as to send us; and as we are in correspondence with a young and spirited member of the Tennessee Legislature, we hope soon to give to our readers further good accounts of the present state of the home industry, from that very interesting quarter of the Union.

I have now pointed out several routes through the Cumberland and Lookout Mountains, along which a railroad to Chattanooga may be constructed. An actual survey, by a competent engineer, can only decide which of them will be the most practicable. My observations as to distances and elevations are imperfect, and only such as can be made in an excursion intended to examine the deposites of coal of that region. My investigations have, however, fully satisfied me that there exists no impediments to the construction of the proposed road which may not be easily removed.

I now proceed to enumerate the advantages which are offered by the country through which I have pointed out the different routes for the proposed road. Advantages which will only be properly developed if this road be constructed, and which, otherwise, the means of transportation being deficient, may remain dormant for a great number of years. Advantages to which England owes a considerable part, if not the whole, of its present elevated station amongst the powers of Europe. I allude to the deposites of coal and iron, which, as I will show, exist in a great abundance in the section of country under consideration.

The deposites of coal in that part of the Cumberland Mountains which I have examined, forming its southern extremity, and also part of Walden's Ridge, together with the northern extremity of Raccoon Mountain, are of great extent, and are only partly brought to light, and those that are known are only slightly penetrated. Most of them have merely furnished the fuel for the blacksmith in the surrounding country. A few boat loads have been taken from the banks which are in the vicinity of Tennessee river, some of which are said to have reached New Orleans; but as that place is more conveniently supplied from the Ohio river, it is doubtful whether this coal ever descended the Mississippi river. The inhabitants, therefore, of that part of the State of Tennessee, being not much interested in these possessions, have not thought it worth their while to investigate properly the extent of these deposites, and consequently the account which I now offer is merely an approximation. The extent of the coal fields which may be favoured by the proposed railroad is great; we may include in it those of Mr. Kimbrow, on the Crab Orchard road, and Mr. Gillingwater, which are only about three miles from the Tennessee river, and may, without much trouble, be transported down the river to Chattanooga. The case is the same with those banks that are known by the name of Jack's Banks. Most of the other deposites are in the immediate vicinity of the road from Chattanooga to Nashville.

I have already, in a preceding report, spoken of the coal bank of Mr. Kimbrow. I mentioned there that neither the extent nor the direction of this deposite could be ascertained, that it seems to run vertically into the ground, and that its horizontal extent was equally indeterminable, and this doubt is not yet cleared up. Mr. Kimbrow has now descended about 20 feet into the coal, and has not yet reached the bottom.

In the same report I have given a description of the coal deposites of Mr. Gillingwater. This, I mentioned, was an extensive irregular deposite of coal, showing no traces of stratification, and of which the dimensions could not be ascertained.

I published, also, analyses of this and the coal of Mr. Kimbrow, which show that these coals are of very good quality.

Another deposite is found in the vicinity of Mr. Kimbrow, near the old turnpike gate of Maj. W. Brown. Judging from external appearances, it is extensive, but it is not yet penetrated.

Near Piney Creek, in a lower range of the mountain than the preceding deposite occupies, appears an outcrop, which has not yet been penetrated.

Another deposite we have opposite the Crab Orchard Tavern, which seems to be extensive.

The next deposite that claims our attention is situated on Rocky Creek, in Hamilton county, about 25 miles from Chattanooga. The bank is known by the name of Jack's Bank. Two strata, separated from each other by sandstone, are opened. The upper stratum has a thickness from eight to nine feet. The thickness of the lower stratum is not known; it has been penetrated downwards for ten feet, but no bottom was found. A specimen of this coal is amongst those presented to the Legislature; it is marked No. 11.

The next coal banks are all in the vicinity of the route of the proposed railroad.

That the members of the Legislature may be enabled to form some adequate conception of the rich and varied deposites of these and other minerals in the vicinity of the contemplated railroad, I send them with my report several specimens, marked as follows:

No. 1. Is coal from near the mouth of Battle Creek, about two miles from Mr. J. Haley's. The stratum is about two feet thick; it rests on a stratum of slate, and is covered with sandstone. This stratum may be traced for upwards of eight miles in a horizontal direction. It is not far penetrated. The thickness may increase, as I have observed some outcrops of the same stratum that exceed two feet. Judging from appearances below this stratum, I think that other strata may be found below it. It is the property of the heirs of Dr. Haley.

No. 2. Is coal from a stratum about two miles northwest from Mr. J. Haley's, near the mouth of Battle Creek. It is not the same spur of mountain from which No. 1 was taken. The stratum is about four feet in thickness. Seven feet of it is cleared, and it has been penetrated about ten feet. This stratum seems to extend through this whole spur of the mountain, and outcrops of other strata may be traced in a lower situation. This coal, judging from its structure, resembles that of Mr. Gillingwater. It is more bituminous than No. 1. It is the property of Mr. Miller Rice.

No. 3. Is coal from Battle Creek, about six miles from Jasper. The stratum is six feet thick. It rests on slate, and is covered with sandstone. There are three strata, from thirty to forty feet apart. These strata are very extensive, in fact almost everywhere coal may be found here. It is the property of Mr. McMurray.

No. 4. Is coal from Mullen's Creek, about three miles from the Tennessee river. It is a good slaty coal. The stratum is two feet in thickness. The property of Mr. J. Haley.

No. 5. Is coal from near the Suck. It is an extensive stratum. It is two feet in thickness. The coal is similar to No. 4. The property of Mr. McEwen.

No. 6. Is coal from near Kelley's Ferry, one mile from the Tennessee river. It may be traced to near the Suck. The stratum is four feet in thickness. The property of Mr. J. Haley.

No. 7. Is coal from Raccoon Mountain, a short distance above Rankin's Ferry, on the Tennessee river. The stratum is about twelve feet thick. A seam of slate divides it into two parts; the upper is nine feet, and the lower three feet, in thickness. These divisions do not run parallel to one another. The property of Mr. Rankin.

No. 8. Is coal from Raccoon Mountain, from a stratum on the opposite side of the cove on which No. 7 occurs. It is three feet thick. There are three strata, separated from twenty to thirty feet from each other. The property of Mr. Rankin.

No. 9. Is coal from Raccoon Mountain, on the Georgia side. The boundary line runs through it. It is about three feet in thickness.

No. 10. Is coal from Raccoon Mountain. It is about two feet in thickness. Property of Mr. Allen.*

No. 11. Coal described above. The Jack's Bank.

No. 12. Coal from about seventeen miles from Jasper, on the Cumberland Mountain, one mile from the stage road. The thickness of the stratum is not known. It is probably more than 20 feet. Mr. Mitchel, from Jasper, says that it is his property. Some others claim it.

I have omitted in this enumeration a deposite of coal, which is more extensive than any of the above mentioned; it is situated on the summit or table land of the Cumberland Mountains, between the stage road to Jasper, and the Battle Creek road. Bad weather, and thereby want of time, prevented me from making an occular examination. It belongs to Messrs. La Chapel, Bayerd, & Co., who are there preparing a large tract of land, for a settlement of Europeans, principally Germans.

It appears from the above enumeration, that there exists an inexhaustible treasure of this combustible, which, if once the means of transportation are established, will make Middle Tennessee entirely independent of the uncertain water power, which is mostly unavailable here, during the summer season, and may be the means of transforming this part of Tennessee into a manufacturing country.

IRON.

The next important material in the Cumberland Mountains, is the Iron Ore, which, also, exists there, in the vicinity of the coal banks, in great abundance. I must here observe, that our iron ore, though in the proximity of the coal, is not the same as that which is found in the coal fields of England, and which produces an inferiour kind of iron, if we may judge of it by the specimens, that in some parts of the United States have been imported for railroads and other purposes. English imported iron is not to be compared with our Tennessee iron; to the honour of which, I beg leave here to mention, that none of the steam boilers made of Tennessee iron, out of which several, I am informed, have been constructed in Cincinnati and Pittsburg, have burst. Of course, therefore, our iron masters are free from any blame of having contributed to the sacrifice of the hundreds of lives that have been lost by those accidents.

No. 1. Is a specimen of *Red Iron Oxide*. An extensive deposite of this ore occurs near Prigmore Gap, three-fourths of a mile from Sequatchee river, projecting abundantly above ground. It is the property of the heirs of the late Dr. Haley. The same kind of ore occurs abundantly on the left side of Tennessee river, on the Raccoon Mountain. The ore at the two above mentioned localities, is of a granular structure.

This vein of iron ore, varying here and there in its structure, may be traced for more than 60 miles, along the eastern declivity of the Cumberland Mountains, that is, from Raccoon Mountain to the Cumberland Gap; where the Cumberland Mountains enter into Kentucky and Virginia. The iron works of Kimbro and Gordan, are established on the same vein. The ore used in the above mentioned works, has a different structure; it is more or less foliated, or rather scaly. These establishments have been in operation for several years, and when proper care has been taken in the preparation of the metal, have produced good iron.

Among the samples presented to the Legislature—No. 1. is the granular ore from Prigmore's Gap; and No. 2, the scaly variety from a more northeastern locality.

No. 3. Is brown iron stone, (compact liver ore.) This ore is similar to that of our rich iron deposites in Dickson, Stewart, and Perry counties, and others in Middle Tennessee, and those of Carter, Sullivan, and other counties of East Tennessee. This variety is particularly compact, and judging from the surface of the deposite, very abundant, and though its compactness may render it somewhat difficult to work, it will be more productive in metal. It is the property of the heirs of Dr. Haley.

No. 4. Is brown iron stone and stilpnosiderite. It is a compound ore, composed of *brown iron stone* of a very compact structure, passing into the variety called *liver ore*, through which runs the *stilpnosiderite*. The latter, I believe, has the reputation of making "red short" iron. We have several ores in Tennessee, in which this kind of ore enters, but I never understood that they produced "red short" iron. This ore is very pure and heavy, and judging from external appearances, promises to be abundant.

LIMESTONE.

The next material under consideration is Limestone. It may, perhaps, appear strange to an inhabitant of Middle Tennessee, that a substance which incumbers him very much, may be valuable in other parts of the Union. Nevertheless such is the case, and I doubt whether in any part of South Carolina or Georgia, any good limestone is found, and I understand that it has lately become a desideratum in those States to improve the fields with, which in some parts begin to fail.

The whole of Sequatchee Valley, and Battle Creek Valley, in fact the whole of the base of the Cumberland Mountains, Walden's Ridge, Raccoon and Lookout Mountains, are limestone, and limestone of a superiour quality, surpassing in purity that which occurs in most places in Middle Tennessee. The upper part of this stratum seems, from its external appearance, to be a kind of hydraulic limestone; so that it may even become, for some purposes, a desideratum in Nashville, in the vicinity of which, some years ago, kilns were constructed to furnish New Orleans with lime.

If the projected railroad shall be constructed, this limestone may become of paramount importance to the inhabitants of the Cumberland Mountains. I have seen the lime made of that limestone; it is of an excellent quality, and when prepared with proper sand, it furnishes a superiour mortar and perfectly white when used for external coating. I would, therefore, advise the inhabitants of that part of the State to erect what is called perpetual limekilns, and these may serve for both kinds of fuel, wood, and the refuse coal, (coal which is too small for transportation.)

For the information of those who have not paid any attention to the process of lime burning, I wish to state one fact—that the limestone, which has been exposed for a long while to the action of meteoric agencies, or what is generally called surface rock, consisting of fragments collected from the surface, is not as well calculated to be burned as that which is taken from a quarry or under cover. Such limestone contains a fluid which facilitates the burning very much—in fact, I have seen limestone which could not be burned and was rejected under the name of bastard limestone, while the same kind, fresh from the quarry, was easily burned.

WHETSTONE.

Another substance, though not of paramount importance with the limestone, may deserve our attention—I allude to a kind of slate which occurs in abundance on the Raccoon Mountain and some parts of Walden's Ridge. I collected some fragments of it, which answer very well for hone or whetstone. Several mechanics in that part of Tennessee do not use any other whetstone; I myself found that it answered very well for sharpening a razor.

ALUM.

I have already, on a former occasion, recommended to the inhabitants of Tennessee the manufacture of alum, which is now imported from some Eastern cities, perhaps from Europe. The primary materials of which alum is composed, exist in great abundance in the Cumberland Mountains.

The component parts of alum are alumine, sulphuric acid, and potash. The greater part of the slate which accompanies the coal strata contains materials, which, when acted upon by the atmospheric air, are converted into alumine and sulphuric acid, the latter mostly in superabundance. The slate, for that purpose, requires only to be broken up into fragments, and exposed to the influence of the air in such a manner that rain is admitted only when it is required to dissolve the soluble matter which is formed by the action of the air. This soluble matter consists of two of the ingredients which compose alum—the alumine and sulphuric acid—so that it requires only the potash to complete the composition of this article. I have comunicated the mode of composing it to several of the inhabitants of the country where this slate (aluminous slate or shale) occurs, but as yet no one has profited by the information.

All of which is very respectfully submitted.

G. TROOST,
Geologist of the State.

THOUGHTS ON

AGRICULTURE, MANUFACTURES, AND COMMERCE.

I offer you the following thoughts, which I have more than once endeavoured to enforce, in the several addresses it has fallen to my lot to make, as the ardent friend of American interests, for insertion in the National Magazine. And in so doing, take occasion to say, that I consider that work as eminently adapted to the promotion of the best interests of the whole Union.

I observe, with pleasure, that you take the ground that agriculture, manufactures, and commerce, are inseparable, having always been fully convinced that they are mutually dependent upon each other, and that a paternal and republican government, above all others, should, with an equal and impartial hand, extend its care and protection over them.

It is, indeed, difficult to perceive for what government is instituted, if not, as the Constitution expresses it, to legislate "for the general welfare." Nor is it less difficult to find out how it has happened that the agriculturists of the United States have suffered themselves to be treated with the injustice that has been done them; but the government ought not to be censured for this neglect, for the fault lies with themselves. The census shows that eighty out of every one hundred of our population are interested in the culture of the soil, and derive their subsistence from this primitive employment. They, therefore, have the numerical power, bear the public burthens while they shoulder the musket, in time of need. It is for them, then, to provide for themselves and for this paramount portion of the public interest, and to maintain it by the exercise of the elective franchise.

Looking to our past history—the frequent revulsions in business, balances of trade against us, leading inevitably to the exportation of specie, the consequent breaking down of our moneyed institutions, the repudiations of solemn contracts, bankruptcy, and disgrace, painful to contemplate, and with all this, too, a neglect of the proper legislative aid, almost beyond belief among a free and enlightened people—I must be permitted to express the opinion that the great fault of all this lies with our agriculturists; the country has a just right to look to them for subsistence and defence; it is emphatically their own cause, and yet it is neglected.

We, as a nation, are highly favoured by a benign Providence, and yet we suffer his blessings to be overlooked. We may at least, without improper boasting, assume to be on a footing with the nations of the earth; but from unwise measures we have often suffered other nations to overwhelm us with the proceeds of their industry, to the paralyzation of our own, and thus to draw from us almost the last golden eagle, and leave us in useless controversy as to the real cause of our misfortunes. It thus becomes our positive duty to assert, morally and practically, our absolute independence.

In doing this, we have only to ask of all other nations—mutuality! equality of rights and mutuality in dealings. Nor should we permit extended intercourse upon any other terms. We hear much said about "free trade." Free trade doctrine, as the world is situated, is a bubble—an ignis fatuus—a false light. There is no such thing as "free trade;" it cannot exist—it never did exist. I would say to the farmer, what would he think of "free farming?" The man who should proclaim "free farming" over the country, with no fences, would soon be considered a lunatic, and this would be no more absurd than is the idea of "free trade." It has been said the farmers' fences in Pennsylvania cost upwards of one million of dollars! It would, therefore, doubtless, save much money to dispense with them—but, like "free trade," it would subject his crops to destruction. It is to be feared many noble agriculturists have been deluded by this bubble, called "free trade!" he has been led to believe that it involves some great moral principle. Accustomed to freedom of thought and action in his noble and independent life, he is deceived by the magic word "free," which is of deep import when applied to his political rights, but which has nothing to do with trade; and this he may very well know, from the restrictions which are placed upon the produce of his farm, which is excluded from many foreign ports and places, so that a foreign market is mostly denied to him. Let us say to the nations, set us first the example of what you call "free trade," and then we may believe in your sincerity in recommending it to us. Till then, we shall purchase our clothing from our neighbour, who will purchase, and who does purchase, our produce. This is the true doctrine, and had it been acted up to, our country would have been saved from those revulsions which have broken down our moneyed institutions, and produced such wide-extended ruin. If, however, any are so unwise as to think freedom of trade possible, let them first afford relief at home—let them go for freedom of transport on our canals and railroads; it may be well to sympathise with foreign nations, but let us look to our home interests. He who does not provide for his own household, we are told from high authority, "is worse than an infidel." Our canals and railroads, he will be told, cost large sums of money—but so, also, does our commercial intercourse. Many millions are expended every year for the navy, for foreign missions, &c., which are all charges upon our intercourse and commerce with foreign nations. The cost of our canals is less in amount than the lighthouses, and the public expenses at our seaports on foreign commerce. The agriculture and manufactures of a country are the great sources of its wealth, and it is upon these alone that useful commerce can be founded—and to what an immense sum must the internal trade of our country amount, when its industry has reached, as it now has, at least to one thousand millions of dollars, and when not more than one hundred million is appropriated to foreign commerce. Government is undoubtedly responsible for a fostering care to such an immense amount in value, all drawn from the labour and skill of its citizens; and that government is certainly in fault which does not obtain, or create, a market for it. A government which should permit us to be crowded out, or prohibited from the marts of the world, and would not create one at home, would fail in the objects for which it is established.

Has the farmer ever calculated the cost of bringing his wheat to market? From Michigan, or any place on our lakes, to Buffalo, is ten cents a bushel—on to Albany is sixteen and three-quarter cents, including ten cents canal toll—to New York three cents—total, twenty-nine and three-quarter cents. At New York he will receive, perhaps, one dollar; thirty cents off will leave the distant farmer seventy cents per bushel for his indefatigable labour.

The whole freight of a cargo of wheat to New York from Europe, is from *nine to ten* cents a bushel. But when imported in the hold of the ship, and with emigrants between decks, at six or seven cents a bushel. *Odessa*, a region fruitful in wheat to a proverb—producing over 25 bushels to the acre—a country of Russian serfs and Turkish slaves, whose whole costume often consists of a frock of one sheepskin in front and another behind—a country in which there is scarcely such a thing as a barn—implements of domestic labour, wretched and few—wheat winnowed by immense bodily labour, in throwing it up with shovels to the winds. *Italy* and the *Mediterranean!* There, the poor labourer, with his only food, maccaroni, asks but for the addition of one luxury—a garlic, twice a week, to flavour it! These are countries peculiarly productive, and abounding with wheat, and with labour of the most abject and servile condition. The costs of freight from the ports of the Mediterranean, according to circumstances, will average from twelve to sixteen cents a bushel.

The cost of transportation of a bushel of our wheat from the West to New York, is *two-thirds more than that from Bremen*; and about *double* that from the Mediterranean. The legislation of our country had thus provided a premium in favour of foreign grain; and had reduced our farmers to the unequal competition with the degraded and most servile labour of Europe.' The Tariff Act of 1842 alone redeemed them from the humility of their condition, by the protecting duty of *twenty-five* cents a bushel.

In 1836 and '37, large quantities of barley were imported on commission, for brewers, in this city, at Albany, and the intermediate towns on the Hudson. It cost, including all expenses, *fifty-five* cents per bushel. During the same years large quantities of rye were in like manner imported for distillers, and all the cost was sixty-three cents. The market price of barley was at the time about one dollar per bushel, and of rye, one dollar twenty-five cents. This information I have from a source in which I entirely confide for its accuracy. The brewers and the distillers at the time kept their own secret, while the consumers drank the proceeds in full gusto, at the rate of one dollar and one dollar twenty-five cents a bushel.

These are the results of laws which you yourselves sanction. *All our Atlantic cities can eat ther bread cheaper from across the wide ocean than from our own farms.* Without the present protection of twenty-five cents a bushel, it would be so obtained. If we do not adhere to our present system, foreign nations will overwhelm us with their productions, again take away our specie, and leave our grain upon our hands, without either a foreign or domestic market.

So much has been said in this country of Adam Smith, that I feel the propriety of submitting a few words on the subject and history of *Political Economy*. Holland was, in her day, the great emporium of commerce, and Flanders of manufactures. These two countries are about equal in dimensions to a couple of our counties. Their most prosperous condition existed about two centuries ago. Great Britain then, far in the rear, encumbered with her *baronial* power, lacking comparative civilization, began to perceive the essential benefits to be derived from the examples of those States. She began, with them, to encourage domestic industry; *and when she could not establish reciprocity with Flanders, she shut her out!* The rivalry and strife, from these and other causes of contention, ran so high, that Holland set about the invasion of England. The curious will find an illustration of the spirit of that age, by reference to an original proclamation, now preserved in the New York Society Library, of Governor Andros, calling on these American colonies to aid the parent country in the then crisis of her peril. It was in those days Van Tromp sailed into the Thames with a *broom* tied at his mast head, to show he had swept out the British Channel. It was in those days, that country was so entirely drained of its currency, " the shops in the city of London were closed; and the Bank of England began to *pay in sixpences*." The science of political economy was moulded into a weapon for defence.

About 1670, Great Britain began to make books on political economy; every one of them was for protection in the extreme! accompanied with some *six or seven hundred criminal laws, enacted to enforce the laws of protection*. Child wrote in 1670—Gee in 1730—Cantillon in 1750—Mildmay in 1760. All the most distinguished writers of England on political economy used the strongest language in favour of protection of domestic industry. *They wrote for the government.* Gee is nearly out of print. This book is entitled "The Trade and Navigation of Great Britain considered" —"*Showing that the surest way for a nation to increase in riches, is to prevent the importation of such foreign commodities as may be raised at home: That this kingdom is capable of raising, within itself and its colonies, materials for employing all our poor in those manufactures which we now import from such of our neighbours who refuse the admission of our own.*" Gee states that his book was written by "*Order of the Lords of Trade.*" It was printed, not to publish it, but to put a few of them into the hands of some of the ministers of state, and other great men. He had understood, by some great persons, "that a discourse upon trade would be very acceptable to the king." Such was the uniform and yet unvarying doctrine of the government of Great Britain, for one hundred years before our Revolution, and is her *practice* at this time. When that great event was rapidly approaching: when Holland and Flanders were *supplanted*, so effectually, that their unoccupied canals, and museums of Chinese curiosities, only remain in token of their lost trade—when England was standing pre-eminent in arms and in commerce—lo! the book of Sir James Stewart makes its appearance—a book essentially teaching the then new-born doctrine of *free trade*. This book was published in 1769. England had resolved to put out the lights by which her course had been guided to fame and fortune. At length, in due time, Adam Smith appears. His book was printed in 1775 and the beginning of 1776. The first copy of his work cannot be found among us. For one hundred years before our Revolution, a high-toned protection to home industry was enacted and enforced by the severest penal laws. Since that time, about 70 years, the same practice has continued, but all the *books* have been free trade—a false light, erected to lead others on to shoals and quick-sands, and to secure to England the monopoly of commercial wealth, naval power, and prosperity.

Selling a sheep, or exporting a fleece of wool, was punished, for the first offence, by forfeiture of goods, his hand to be cut off and nailed up in a market town; and for a second offence, to suffer death. This last act escaped the notice of British legislators, and yet remains unrepealed, although unexecuted.

To entice an artificer, or any manufacturer, to leave Great Britain, to practice or teach his trade, was punished with the severest penalties; while the artificer himself forfeited his estate, was declared an alien, and incapable to take property by descent, gift, or otherwise. It was called "*Owling.*"—4th *Bl. Com.*

When Mr. Schofield, of Waterbury, Connecticut, now living, established his manufactory of *buttons* in that town, he had difficulty in obtaining artisans, and could not send them from England, but was obliged to send them disguised, and ship them from Ireland as common emigrants. Other manufacturers, and especially those of broadcloth, formerly encountered like difficulties, and expedients—often sent them first to Holland or to France, and from thence to this country. Mr. Haight, of New York, thus got out his *carpet looms*.

The export from England of any cotton or woollen machinery, was prohibited by forfeiture and penalties. The earliest American adventurers in the manufacture of cotton and woollen, encountered many dangers, difficulties, delays, and great expenses, in getting out machinery. It was obtained then only in parts—from drawings, and from the memory of artisans. And but for the use of one common language, and the custom of emigration to this country, the watchful hindrances of government officers and penal laws could not have been eluded and overcome. By the act 14th George III., it is a forfeiture, and a fine of £200, to export any utensils for the manufacture of cotton, linen, woollen, and silk; and a like penalty on the ship, knowing that she brings them.

The desire of Russia to manufacture, was thus prevented till within a few years. When they learned from an American visiter, that this country made its own machinery, with American improvements on the best English models, orders were immediately given to ship specimens from Lowell, and to draw on Russia for the costs to one hundred thousand dollars. This opened a new and profitable trade with Russia, which is now carried on extensively from Lowell and Paterson, and, I believe, Matteawan; and the ports of Russia were also opened to American cotton. England, watchful for the interests of her subjects, on learning the opening of this new American trade, forthwith repealed her law against the export of cotton machinery, and enabled her people to enter into the competition and profit of this trade.

One word as to Adam Smith. He does not say he wrote for Government, as Joshua Gee did. But the whole tenour of his work, and the time and the circumstance, prove the fact. In the form of a book on the *Science of Political Economy*, the colonies and their interests are interwoven in many of its pages, with extensive colouring, with reasons for the burdens imposed upon the colonies—urging upon them the justice of submitting to *Taxation*, to aid in paying the national debt—with suggestions of amelioration of their condition—with objections to monopolies and corporations—of relief from the restrictions on their trade and manufactures —of pacification, by informing them that they were treated better than either Greece, Rome, or other nations had ever treated their colonies; and adding the very delicate proposition, "that if to each colony which should detach itself from the general CONFEDERACY, Great Britain should allow a representation, a new method of acquiring importance, a new and more dazzling object of ambition, would be presented to the *leading men* of each colony, to draw some of the great prizes which sometimes come from the wheel of the great state lottery of British politics."

Is it inquired, who was this Adam Smith? History affords the answer. He was a man of great talents and learning—he was a professor of moral philosophy in the University of Glasgow. He suddenly left that comfortable retreat, on being *invited* by CHARLES TOWNSEND to accompany the young Duke of Buccleugh in his travels on the continent; "and upon conditions which assured the philosopher an amply competent independence of fortune for his future life." It gave him an opportunity to collect materials, and time to write his book.

Is it asked, who was *Charles Townsend*? "He was a man of splendid talents, of lax principles, and of boundless vanity and presumption. He had belonged to every party, and cared for none." He had been Secretary at War under the *Bute* administration, and left it with discredit. He had married the widow, and become the step-father of her son, the young Duke of Buccleugh. Under Lord Chatham, he was Chancellor of the Exchequer, and with the Duke of Grafton, Treasurer, become one of the boldest advocates in Parliament for the *taxation* of America. He was a distinguished member of that administration, whose lot it was to succeed to the crop, and reap the fruit, of the *Grenville* measures and the *Stamp Act;* of that administration which gave *Adam Smith* the place and living of "*one of the Commissioners of his Majesty's Customs in Scotland;*" of that administration whose misguided measures drove America into rebellion and revolution—whose corruptions provoked and called into existence the riots and tumultuous assemblies in London! and aroused the caustic and terrible pen of JUNIUS, to record them on the pages of history. Our existence as a nation is a living monument of the events of that day.

Who can doubt but that the book of Adam Smith was the work of a *partisan* and *pensioned writer* of the British Government? "The right of taxation without representation, and that not even a *hobnail* should be manufactured in America," were the declared principles of the government. This was the foundation and corner stone of the American Revolution. The seed of Great Britain's old political economy was deeply planted with us, and among the nations of the earth. She taught one doctrine to us, and practiced another for herself. And yet this book is the oracle put forward, smoothly to wipe it all away. Having failed by arms to gain our commerce and prevent our manufacturing, it is now endeavoured, by this book of Adam Smith, and the writings of the herd of government retainers, who have succeeded him in dictionaries, magazines, pamphlets, reviews, and newspapers, to induce us to open our country to her free trade—while instead of receiving our productions in payment, she meets them with a prohibition by an average duty of 330 per cent. on all our articles, except cotton.

I firmly believe that this is the key with which to unlock the secrets of Adam Smith's book. That book is not, however, wild in principle. The theory is beautiful. It contains much useful information on points not affecting the colonies. To prevent being misunderstood, he expressly says, "it would be as absurd to expect to see a system of unlimited free trade adopted in Great Britain, as to expect that an OCEANA or UTOPIA should ever be established in it."

Honest Joshua Gee gives us the true light. I say with him "the surest way for a nation to increase in riches, is to prevent the importation of such foreign commodities as may be raised at home."

At the time of the negotiation of the *Treaty of Peace* at Ghent, Mr. Clay proposed to make a *commercial treaty*, on the basis of free trade, between the two countries. One of the British commissioners replied, "We are appointed to negotiate a treaty of peace, and not a commercial treaty. But we could never agree to have free trade. Our policy is fixed. It is a principle of the British government to *protect alike* its subjects in every condition; whether it is the humble miner that digs the ore; the shepherd that raises a fleece of wool; the artisan that forms it into the finest fabric; or the proudest nobleman in England."

When in London, in 1836, I mentioned this circumstance, and the often repeated, like proposition, on the part of the United States, to agree on free trade, to Nassau W. Senior, Esq., an author, and who then had in the press a second edition of his work on *Political Economy*, and I requested of him to add a chapter to his book, explaining what a nation should do, when it had thus offered free trade, and which had been rejected; and I suggested the omission of this chapter, as a defect in the book of Adam Smith. The answer was, "it is the business of the *legislator*, and not of the *economist*, to determine the conclusions, and decide how far they are to be acted upon." (Vide Ed. Review, Oct., 1837, page 41, where my question is more fully answered in the review of Mr. Senior's book.) All this means, that *free trade* is a beautiful theory for a state of the perfectability of man. Whenever such a *political millenium* shall happen, we may not only have free trade, but may dispense with all government, and live without locks on our doors. Until it shall so happen, we must countervail the encroachments of other governments, and defend ourselves by our own legislation and protection.

One of the most frequently quoted sentences from Adam Smith—to oppose encouragement to home industry—is, " If a foreign country can supply us with a commodity cheaper than we can make it, better buy it of them, with some part of *the produce of our own industry*, employed in a way in which we have advantage." Again—" It is an acquired advantage which one artificer has over another; and yet they both find it more advantageous to buy of one another than to make what does not belong to their particular trades." These truisms are put forward to decoy and delude the unwary. Ask the question—what must be done, when the foreign country will not take " *the produce of our own country*," either in exchange or as payment ? The answer is, it is not the business of the "*economist*" to direct or " determine conclusions." The beautiful theory is thus exploded. The bubble is burst. The real truth of practical life is evident. It is the business, and the moral and public duty of the legislature, to *countervail*, the importations from the other country, and PROTECT " *the produce of our own industry* ;" and to command and maintain *an equality of rights, and mutuality in dealings.*

What is our commercial condition ? Let the following table of duties answer the question.

TABLE.

Total Export of Articles, the Growth or Produce of the United States, to England, Scotland, and Ireland, with the Duties paid thereon during the years 1838, 1839, *and* 1840 :

1838,..........	Value,	$50,481,624	Duties,	$23,621,160........	46 7-10 pr. c.
1839,..........	"	50,791,981	"	26,849,477........	52 8-10 "
1840,..........	"	54,005,790	"	28,360,153........	52 5-10 "
Total,.......	"	$155,279,395	"	$78,830,790 average	50 5-10 "

Of the above, the value of cotton and tobacco, and the duties paid thereon, were as follows :

1838,	Cotton,............	Value,	$45,789,687	Duties,	$2,761,612
	Tobacco,............	"	2,939,706	"	19,860,898
1839,	Cotton,............	"	46,074,579	"	1,942,337
	Tobacco,............	"	3,523,225	"	23,288,396
1840,	Cotton,............	"	41,945,334	"	3,247,880
	Tobacco,............	"	3,380,809	"	22,537,205
	Total,..................		$143,653,340	"	$73,638,328

All articles, other than cotton and tobacco, the growth or produce of the United States, exported to England, Scotland, and Ireland, during the same three years, amounted to $11,626,055, or $3,875,351 annually. Omitting cotton, Great Britain has levied an average duty of 330 per cent. on all articles the growth or produce of the United States.

The above table exhibits these remarkable facts : That all our exports to Great Britain, during the three years, amounted to one hundred and fifty-five millions, and of which sum one hundred and forty-three millions was cotton and tobacco. Thus showing that during the three years, the exports of all other articles amounted to the sum of eleven millions six hundred and twenty-six thousand and fifty-five dollars, being the yearly amount of three millions eight hundred and seventy-five thousand three hundred and fifty-one dollars, and including the rice, sugar, timber, &c., of the Southern States, as all the yearly value of the exports to Great Britain from this country, except cotton and tobacco. How insignificant does this disclosure present the total exports and trade with Great Britain from the grain-growing States! For this trade we have imports from Great Britain, and mostly at the North, amounting yearly to about fifty-five millions, of which somewhere about ten millions were, by our laws, duty free! In 1845, the duty on cotton was taken off, to relieve the British manufacturer.

Great Britain had made a discrimination of her duties on our exports—laying on the cotton of the planter a duty of from *five* to *seven* per cent., and on the exports other than cotton, an average duty of 330 per cent. With the exhibition of such facts and such benefits, who will any longer impute blame to *Charleston*, for a flurry and a flare-up, in the shape of nullification and free trade, to hold on to her benefits from such foreign regulations? With the legislation of our own country which sanctions, and a *government* which *approves*, such unequal results in commerce, how can we expect to have either a market or fair price for our produce abroad?

The difference afforded by British regulations of a duty of *five* per cent. on cotton, or its free admission, and of *three hundred and thirty* per cent. average duty on all other produce of the United States, explains the cause of the many feuds among ourselves on all questions of tariff and revenue—of constitutional doubts of encouragement to domestic industry—the violence against any discrimination or protection—the necessity of a horizontal tariff, and a limit of our duties to twenty per cent. *ad valorem*—and all which is well expressed to adherents, by the commendation of being "a Northern man with Southern principles."

The statement of the export of forty-five millions of cotton from the Southern States, in contrast with three millions eight hundred and seventy-five thousand dollars, as all the export from the grain-growing States, shows not only a depression of the interests of those States, but should ever bring into consideration the immense value of the varied domestic productions of those States in agriculture and manufactures, and which goes into the commerce with other countries, or, without exhibition, is consumed in the domestic support of the nation. Without detailing the whole, let it suffice to say, the single State of Massachusetts sends out, yearly, leather, shoes, hats, and manufactures, more than equal in value to the cotton crop of the whole South. A return and exhibit of her yearly created wealth and production in agriculture and manufactures, in 1840, amounted to *ninety-four* millions of dollars. The capitalists of England so well understand and appreciate the wisdom of measures which lead to such results, that they readily supplied, on the credit of that State, the necessary funds for their Great Western railroad to Albany, and took the loan at a discount of about seventy thousand dollars below par. Must it be added, that the National Government could not, at the time, make a loan at par, to meet its current expenses!

Take out of our exports cotton, and England would almost sink without it. It is a raw material, which she must have for her manufacturers, and she cannot exist without it. She has tried in vain to raise it! She has ransacked the world to find it elsewhere, and not to rely on us for it.

On the forty-five millions of cotton exported to England, compute duties at the same rate of 330 per cent., which is charged on all other articles exported from the United States, the amount of duties would be $148,500,000. This annual sum of 148,500,000, as the difference between the now favoured cotton admitted duty free, and the average rate of duty on all the other exports from the United States to England, certainly makes up a very comfortable purse; and which is the saving, and belongs between the cotton planter of the South and the English manufacturer and trader. It affords a volume of very valuable explanations of matters touching the past and the present. It explains, among other things, the feuds and mysteries in the administration of our own government, and the instability in all our concerns. It tells why our exclusive patriots must have "a tariff for revenue only."

The history of the growth and production of *cotton*, showing the increase in the quantity, and the reduction in the price, is replete with lessons of importance to this country. A single illustration must suffice for the present occasion. The price has varied, in the New York market, from 36 cents to the present rate of 5½ cents per pound.

1830-1.—Crop, 1,038,000, (400 lbs.,) at 11¾ cents, or $47 per bale, is...	$48,680,000
1843-4.—Crop, 2,030,000 bales, at 5½ cents, or $32 per bale, is.........	$44,660,000
	$4,020,000

Thus showing that double the quantity of cotton, in 1843, is $4,000,000 less value than one half the amount in 1830. As the quantity has increased, the price has diminished. For many years past—take an average of ten years—the amount of production has doubled, and the price has receded one-half. It is a momentous and desponding truth for the agriculturists of the South. Can the increased demand for labour, for expenses and land, for this doubling process, be much further sustained? It is cause for anxiety, that the recent English papers announce, "that the India Cotton has increased last year 40 per cent., and so much improved in quality, as to compete with the New Orleans in the Liverpool market.

It is worthy of remark, that the manufacturers of the North are the steady customers of the South, and have, in every ten years, doubled their demand for domestic consumption. Had not their manufactures been in the market, England would have stood without a competitor, and would have named her own price to the cotton planter for his bales. She now looks soon to accomplish her wishes, and to obtain her supplies from India.

Great Britain would gladly pay the whole expenses of our Government, for the privilege to introduce her manufactures into this country, free from the hindrances of our tariff. The amount would be only about twenty-six millions, to be taken out of the one hundred and forty-six millions now gained by the discrimination on cotton, besides the benefits to her manufacturing interests. She would assume and pay to her subjects the whole of the debts now repudiated by some of our States, for the advantages of the so-called free trade, which her agents and partisans so busily endeavour to obtain for her.

The grain-growing States might, with propriety, assent to the often-repeated proposition of the South, *for a horizontal tariff for revenue, and limited to* 20 *per cent. ad valorem;* and, in return, to require that a horizontal tariff of other countries, placing cotton, and all the other produce of the United States, upon a *uniform rate* of duties, should be enforced as the basis of our trade with them. If the horizontal rule is essential for our imports, it is equally so for our exports. Such a measure would adopt the free trade taught by England, and might be enforced by an act of Congress, prohibiting the importation of the manufactures and produce of any country which did not accede to such a measure of equal and exact justice. The known love of our cotton-growing brethren for equal rights and exact justice, should induce them readily to adhere to their own proposition, thus carried into operation on equalizing principles. It would be a harmonizing measure, and would remove and allay all the feuds and vexed questions among ourselves, and which now agitate our nation.

Real reciprocity in trade is indeed very excellent, if we could but have it. It would be a thing we never yet have had, or seen. Great Britain can never afford it to us; and were she to-morrow to repeal her corn laws, and open her ports to foreign supplies, it would be no manner of benefit to us. It would shorten the distances and freight of the bread stuffs, from the Baltic, from Germany, and from the Mediterranean, which are now pressing to get into our market. They would fill up immediately the British market, and undersell and crowd us out. "Wheat at Odessa is about forty cents per bushel, and the cost of transportation from that port to London, about one-third less than from the United States." (*Vide Jacob's Report to Parliament.*)

The agriculturists of England are amply protected by their *sliding scale of duties*, so called. It secures to them not only both a high price and a steady home market, but also the control of foreign importations. It is thus accomplished. A price is fixed for grain: if the market price falls below it, then foreign grain is shut out. If the market price rises above the price fixed, then foreign grain may be imported on a high duty. As the market price goes up, in times of scarcity, the duty comes down.

To explain: if our government should pass a law that no wheat should be imported when the market price at a seaport should be below $1 50; if it rises above $1 50, then importations to be admitted on a duty of 50 cents a bushel; if the market price should rise to $1 75 per bushel, then a duty of 37 cents per bushel; if to $2 00, then a duty of 25 cents; if to $2 25, then a duty of 12 cents; if to $2 50, then to admit foreign importations, *duty free*, to prevent a famine. Such is the English sliding scale of duties, to protect their agriculturists. Our farmers would think such a law of Congress afforded them pretty good protection; but it is only English free trade for other countries.

It should be remembered, the public documents show that the home produce of grain in England supplies the demand for her consumption, within *one-nineteenth part* of the whole amount required. This small balance she obtains principally from, and through her colonies, securing the carrying trade to her shipping and ship-building interest; and the residue she catches as she can, and where she can drive the best bargain. We cannot gain any thing by it, and we have no motive to enter into the scuffle; we had better look about, and see all these things in a true light, and begin to take care of ourselves. Follow the doings, and not the teachings, of Great Britain. That government exercises a paternal care for all her subjects. It feels pledged that no one of them willing to labour shall need employment, or want a market for his productions. With her superabundant population to provide for, she has difficulties to encounter. Hence, PROTECTION to *her subjects* is her policy and practice; her books and teaching for others, is FREE TRADE. When the British ambassador, not long since, opened his doctrine, and urged the French Government to the adoption of free trade, monsieur, the Minister, answered, with *s'il vous plait*, "When your government begins to *practice* free trade, we will think of it."

Previous to the commencement of manufactures in New England, the Western farmers found little market with us. In addition to their grain, cattle, sheep, hogs, &c., in almost innumerable quantities, are now continually driven to the markets of Philadelphia, New York, and Boston. Have free trade for one month, and all this only market of the farmer of the West will be broken up, and their prosperity gone. Now, the cattle of Missouri, Illinois, &c., are driven out—fatted in Ohio, Virginia, Pennsylvania, and Western New York, and sold at Brighton, to feed the inhabitants of Boston, Lowell, &c. It is the manufacturers, the ship-builders, and the commerce of the Atlantic cities, which supply consumers, and create this home market.

Before the establishment of manufactures among us, the East India trade was a continued drain on our specie. We had nothing else to ship, to carry it on. Manufactures are now supplied and shipped, in such amount as to pay for much that we import from them. Agriculture cannot prosper, without the first prosperity of commerce and manufactures. Very many farmers now have experience and intelligence to know this, and integrity to declare it. Farmers cost the country nothing, and they pay for diplomacy, ministers, and every thing. They wish only a market, foreign or domestic.

I will not inquire the immense value of all our yearly crops; but let us cast a thought upon our *potato crop alone*, as to its value, compared with all our exports to England, (except cotton.) The last census shows that one hundred and nine millions of bushels are the customary yield of one year, which, estimated at a quarter of a dollar per bushel, gives $27,000,000, or *seven times* the value or amount of all the residue of our expports to England, (taking out the cotton, tobacco, and rice.)

Since the establishment of our government, we have already three times tried free trade. Each time it brought us to the brink of dissolution and ruin. And why are we not satisfied with these experiments? The first time was soon after the Revolutionary war. England crowded in her manufactures upon us. The price of our labour was reduced to thirty-seven cents per day. The government, without adequate revenue, was obliged to resort to internal duties and direct taxes. The second time was in 1816 and 1817, when, in like manner, we were again flooded with foreign goods, and, Matthew Cary says, labour was depressed to a still lower rate. A resort was again had to direct taxes. The third experiment was about 1840–41, at the running down of the ever memorable Compromise Act. Each time the balances of trade were against the country, and its specie was drawn away. Universal distress took its place, and crushed, under its iron feet, the productive industry of the country, and the hopes of the nation. On the recent and last experiment, the CREDIT SYSTEM added *its charms* to the triumph of destruction, and the indelible stain, to remain for posterity, was deeply impressed by *Repudiation*.

It has been long known, that the MINT of a country is not less accurate and certain in showing the prosperous or adverse condition of its commercial concerns, than a thermometer is to indicate the variations of the weather from heat and cold. More than one hundred years ago, Joshua Gee wrote:

> "To take the right way of judging of the increase or decrease of the riches of the nation by the trade we drive with foreigners, is to examine whether we receive money from them, or send them ours; for if we export more goods than we receive, it is most certain that we shall have a balance brought to us in gold and silver, and the mint will be at work to coin that gold and silver. But if we import more than we export, then it is as certain that the balance must be paid by gold and silver sent to them, to discharge that debt. I am afraid that the present commerce of ours carries out more riches than it brings home. Whereas, formerly, great quantities of bullion were brought into this country by the balance of trade, and coined into money; the tables are turned, and as fast as we import bullion, it is sent away to pay our debts. We send our money to foreign nations, and by employing their poor instead of our own, enable them to thrust us out of our foreign trade; and by imposing high duties on our manufactures, so to clog the importation of them, that it amounts to a prohibition."

The almost prophetic accuracy of this quotation will appear, on reference to the last official returns from our *mint*:

Whole Coinage of the Mint and Branches of the U. S. from 1836 *to* 1843:

For 1836,	$7,764,900 00	For 1840,	$3,426,632 50
1837,	3,299,898 00	1841,	2,240,321 17
1838,	4,206,510 00	1842,	4,190,754 40
1839,	3,576,467 61	1843,	11,967,830 70

That this return of the mint should thus have contrasted so strongly with the buoyancy and the spring given to business by the tariff of 1842, and exhibiting the amount of the whole coinage as two or three millions per year before the act; and the sudden rise of the amount to nearly twelve millions in 1843, immediately after the passing of the act, is worthy of remark. Its genuineness might even be doubted, in these times of party, did it not bear the name of *John Tyler*, and date 20th of January, 1844. It must, therefore, be true.

All these great questions of commerce, in all their consequences, are so immediately connected with agriculture and a market, I cannot forbear to mention one other subject of great and commanding importance to the nation—I mean our numerous RECIPROCITY TREATIES, so called. It is the misuse of the term, and the *permitted* abuse of those treaties, which calls for remark and public consideration. The injuries arising from those treaties are very great, as they are expounded and carried into effect, on us. Most of the nations of Europe have colonies in different parts of the ocean—the East or West Indies. But to be brief, I must illustrate by a single case. Great Britain readily makes a reciprocity treaty with the United States. It bespeaks great equality and mutual kindness. The flags and ships of each other are put upon the same footing in each others' ports, and to be received without distinction or discrimination. It looks all well. In *practice*, under the treaty, an American and an English vessel load at *London* with the same goods, and come in together at one of our ports. The duties collected must be upon the goods, and no difference in which ship the goods come. This country has the right, and so has England, to lay whatever duties she thinks proper on the importation of the goods into their respective ports. England, accordingly, imposed a rate of duties on produce from the United States, so high as to be a prohibition, and a rate of duties on like articles from her own colonies, so low as to be nominal. The effect of this is, that the American and the English ships, which came out together, can neither of them take a return cargo of such articles from the United States to London, or any port, on account of the high duties. But the British ship can take the same articles from our ports, and *sail to the nearest British colony*, touch, and then proceed on to London, or any port. Her voyage is now from the colony, and she pays only the colonial duty on the very articles she took from our port. Thus she sails around the *reciprocity treaty*. The American vessel is not allowed to go from the colony to England; can make no voyage; has no market, and is left in our docks. The British vessel soon again returns with another cargo of British manufactures. Thus, in the circle of her voyages around the reciprocity treaty, she is in the sole possession of her own and our carrying trade; encouraging their ship-building and shipping interest, and employing and training their seamen and vessels in the very trade sacrificed to this country by our American negotiations.

We have heard, to use a modern and homely phrase, of "going the whole hog." But what farmer's boy ever supposed, because he had bargained for the *old mother*, that he had bought the whole *litter*, not mentioned in his agreement. It is the taunt of Europe, that none but American diplomatists could ever have supposed a treaty with any nation embraced their colonies, not mentioned in it.

RECIPROCITY.

These few articles will serve to illustrate the whole:

Duties.	From the U. S.	From British Colonies.
On boards or other timber, per load of 50 cubic feet,	$7 68	$0 48
On oars, per 120,	36 00	90
On handspikes, per 140,	9 60	24
On spokes for wheels, per 1,000,	19 20	48
On firewood, per load of 216 cubic feet,	2 40	free
On bacon, 112 lbs.,	1 75	84
Beans, bushel,	2 26	75
Beef, bbl.,	3 58	87
Butter, 112 lbs.,	5 00	1 12
Cheese, "	2 37	58
Feathers, "	5 00	2 25
Flour, bbl.,	1 44	34
Pork, 112 lbs.,	1 87	44
Rice, "	1 37	12
Spirits from grain, gall's,	5 62	2 00
Oil, linseed, tun,	30 00	5 00
Tallow, 112 lbs.,	79	06
Wheat per bushel, on sliding scale, prohibited unless almost famine,	prohibited.	06

The course of this trade, is, for British vessels to come into our ports and take a cargo of American produce, and sail—if at the east, for Halifax or an eastern province—if at a southern port, for a West India Island

—and having touched thus at a British colony, the voyage is then homeward from such colony. This avoids the reciprocity treaty—secures the carrying trade of our grain, timber, &c., as also the benefit of the discriminating duties in favour of the colonies.

The extent of the perversion and abuse, under the *Reciprocity Treaties*, will appear in part from a recent treasury document, stating "the Commerce and Navigation of the United States." It states the "*clearances*" to the Province of New Brunswick to be, 154 American, and 1,267 British vessels, (for nine months,) from 1st October, 1842, to 1st June, 1843. The Americans were mostly in pursuit of *plaster* for the New-England States. The British vessels were in the carrying trade of our timber, lumber, and fish, and to *touch only* at New-Brunswick, and thence home, paying only their colonial duties on our timber, &c., and which is prohibited to American vessels.

The table of "*entrances*" will illustrate.

	American.	British.
Passammaquoddy,	63	431
Portland,	42	62
Portsmouth,	8	50
Gloucester,	2	31
&c., &c., &c.		

These facts sufficiently show the destructive course of this business. The trade on our lakes is equally bad!!

EXAMPLE.

	American.	British.
Niagara,	24	224
Genesee,	38	88
Oswegatchie,	95	212
Detroit,	2	31
&c., &c., &c.		

In March, 1841, I came up the Savannah river, and there saw eleven large British vessels loading with Georgia timber—no American vessels there! This course of trade is not allowed to an American vessel. *Reciprocity in British* TRADE, means—our ports open to her commerce—her ports shut to our commerce. It is much better for her than free trade. In that, we should be in competition with her; in the *reciprocity trade*, we are shut out.

But this reciprocity trade is not restricted to our country, or to our productions. The treaty extends to Brazil, to Hayti, or any part of the world where the enterprise and the voyage of an American vessel can be defeated.

BRITISH FREE TRADE.

"Foreign coffees are charged 1s. 3d. per pound duty, colonial coffees only 6d., while coffees imported from the Cape of Good Hope, pay 9d. Now, as the cost of sending, in an unusual and indirect way, coffees from a foreign country to the Cape of Good Hope, is only from ½d. to 1d. per pound; very large quantities are *shipped* from Brazil to the Cape; and thence *reshipped* to England."—*Report of a Committee to Parliament,* 1840.

"Have cargoes of coffee been sent *from the United Kingdom*, and from ports of the Continent of Europe, to be landed at the Cape of Good Hope, and thence to be brought back to the United Kingdom, for the purpose of supplying the necessary consumption here? Yes: from 26th April, 1838, to 24th March, 1840, it appears by the returns that 81 cargoes, importing more than 21,000,000 lbs. of *foreign coffee*, had arrived in the United Kingdom, from the Cape of Good Hope. The duty on that mode of carrying coffee is 9d. per pound. If entered from a foreign country, 1s. 3d. The duty saved by the *indirect importation* would be £750,000 sterling, (about $3,750,000.")—*Examination of McGregor, annexed to Report.*

The intent and meaning of this is, that the American vessel cannot take the coffees, to pay 1s. and 3d. sterling per pound in England. She is not allowed to go with a cargo from the English settlements at the Cape of Good Hope to an English port. The British vessel takes the coffee, touches at the Cape, and thence her voyage is home, where she pays 9d. per pound duty—with only ½d. or 1d. per pound for increased cost of her indirect way. Should the American vessel take a cargo, and conclude to bear the difference of duty, the English vessel would soon arrive, and with its difference of duty in her favour (being twelve cents per pound) would undersell and ruin the American voyage. Thus the American ship-owner, with blighted hopes, learns that his own government has not only negotiated him out of the carrying trade of his own country, but has also turned him out of the carrying trade between all other nations and England. It is apparent that the English government negotiated for its subjects; but it is very difficult to say for whom the American government negotiated.

Our neighbours, the Spaniards, have also learned something of this mode of commerce, and of the kindness of our government, under any outrage, in its commercial arrangements. She, too, has provided a duty on cotton, so high as to prohibit its importation in American vessels; while it is brought from her colonies in her own vessels at a nominal duty. Some few years ago, I went from New Orleans to Havana, in an American vessel, laden in part with cotton. I noticed the course of the trade. On arrival at Havana, the cotton became the *produce of Cuba*, and was then shipped, as such, (with the New Orleans bags and marks upon it,) in a Spanish vessel, for Old Spain, and paying only the colonial duty.

These measures show the devices to gain our trade, to exclude American vessels, to injure their carrying trade, to lessen their shipping interest and ship-building, to depress their commerce and navigation, and all in violation of the faith of a treaty professing to be *reciprocal.*

Among the many fruits of these measures, is the growing increase, within the last few years, of foreign tonnage in the American commerce. The *entries* and *clearances* (not coasting) at some of our ports are more than three quarters foreign.

After the war of 1812, with England, her provinces of New Brunswick and Nova Scotia laid heavy duties ($4 per ton) on the export of plaster of Paris. It could not then be obtained from any other source. The Onondaga plaster was not then much known, and the canal of New York was not yet opened for its transportation. It was then deemed an essential in agriculture, and a price was paid for it by farmers, sometimes, as high as thirty dollars per ton. It became an important trade for those colonies, and to make their monopoly complete, they each passed laws prohibiting the export of plaster of Paris in any foreign vessel, (meaning any vessel of the United States.) When those acts became known among us, Congress promptly passed an act declaring the forfeiture of any ship or vessel with plaster of Paris, and denying an entry into our country, after the 4th day of July next, of the *flag* of any nation, or her colonies, which so excluded American vessels from their trade. JAMES MADISON "APPROVED"

THE ACT, 3RD MARCH, 1817. The British minister soon afterwards communicated to our government the REPEAL of the colonial acts; and JAMES MUNROE issued the proclamation suspending the act of Congress. (*Vide Laws of the United States.*

These were Presidents of the country, and not of *the Party*. They belonged to the line of the Revolution. Would they have listened to free trade on one side? or endured, under a reciprocity treaty, the prohibitions and practices now claimed and *permitted* under it? The late Hon. Rufus King, a gentleman, a scholar, and a statesman, then our Senator, was efficient in passing the preceding act. A doubt being expressed that the act prohibiting the *entry* of the British flag, might lead to a war, he promptly replied, "I hope not; but, if it does, we must meet it. If we are not able to maintain our independence, we had better go back to the condition of colonies, and get protection in that relation." What a change has come over the country!

We must thoroughly understand our condition, appreciate its realities, and, at all hazards, maintain our independence and our demands for equal rights as a nation. United as a people, and acting with one spirit for the common welfare, other nations would not dare to encroach on our privileges. With more devotion to our country, and less zeal in the dicipline of party, our public officers and representatives would not be found to lack capacity to understand, nor time and spirit to take care of, the public interest. The burdens fall on the Northern agriculturists, and they must devise the remedy.

THE TOWN OF FALL RIVER, MASSACHUSETTS.

PERHAPS there is not a city or village in the United States, which has more suddenly and more solidly risen into comparatively great importance, within a very short period, than Fall River, in the State of Massachusetts.

The history of Fall River, a place which is becoming of so much importance in the manufacturing world, cannot but be acceptable Situated on a rather abrupt elevation of land rising from the northeast side of Mount Hope Bay, distant about eighteen miles from Newport, and nine from Bristol, R. I., stands the beautiful and flourishing village of Fall River, so called from the river, which, taking its rise about four miles east, runs through the place, and, after many a fantastic turn, is hurried to the bay, over beds of rocks, where, before the scene was changed by the hand of cultivation and improvement, it formed several beautiful cascades, and had a fine and imposing effect. The village is now only picturesque from the variety of delightful landscape by which it is surrounded; the back-ground presenting a variety in rural scenery—where neat farms and fertile fields show themselves, here and there, between hill and dale, and rock and wood. The soil, though for the most part fertile, is in some places exceedingly rocky; and often, in the midst of such places, some little verdant spot shows itself to much advantage.

But Fall River is chiefly inviting as a place of residence, from the salubrity of the air, and the vicinity of Mount Hope Bay, which spreads before it like a mirror, and extends easterly until it meets the waters of Taunton river, forming on each side numerous little creeks and coves, which add to the charms of the landscape materially; while on the southwest it takes a bold sweep, and passing round through Howland's Ferry, where it is compressed through the narrow channel of a draw-bridge, having the island of Rhode Island on one hand and the town of Tiverton on the other, again expands and flows on to meet the ocean. Howland's Ferry is not visible from the village of Fall River, though it is from the bay, when at the distance of three or four miles. Vessels do sometimes pass and repass through the draw-bridge at Howland's ferry, to and from Fall River and Taunton; but the most usual way of access to the former is through Bristol Ferry, two miles south of Bristol Port. It requires no great effort of imagination to go back a few years, and imagine the Indian, with his light canoe, sailing about in these waters, or dodging about among the rocks and trees.

The neighbourhood of Fall River has been the scene of frequent skirmishes among the Picknets, the tribe of King Philip, and the Pequods and Narragansetts. Uncas, too, with the last of the Mohicans, and the best, has set his princely foot upon its strand. Fall River, which in 1812 contained less than one hundred inhabitants, owes its growth and importance principally, indeed almost wholly, to its manufacturing establishments, which, though not splendid in appearance, are very numerous, and employ several thousand persons, collected from different parts of the country, as well as many foreigners, the immense fall of water here, being now nearly covered by establishments of various kinds. There are more than forty thousand spindles in operation, and it is only twenty-one years since the erection of the first cotton manufactory. Previous to this, the land in this vicinity belonged principally to the families of Borden, Bowen, and Durfee; three families from whom the principal part of the stationary inhabitants sprung. The land, now divided among the different manufacturing establishments, is principally held in shares, that is, in the neighbourhood of the establishments. So flourishing has business been there, that there is scarce a mechanic, trader, or even labourer, who has been there for any length of time, who has not acquired an estate of his own. In 1812, the first cotton manufactory was erected by a company incorporated by the name of the Fall River Company. In the same year, another company was incorporated, called the Troy Manufacturing Company, and another factory built. There were, in 1833, thirteen manufactories, viz, two cotton manufactories of the Troy Company; Pocasset, one woollen, do.; New Pocasset, Massasoit, Olney's mill, Calico Works, Fall River Company's mills, three in number; Anawan iron works and nail manufactory. The calico works alone, which cover a large area of ground, employ nearly three hundred hands; its state of improvement is not exceeded by any establishment of the kind in the country. There are, besides, a number of machine shops, &c., which, stuck about on the jutting rocks, many of them in the very bed of the stream, have a most singular appearance. The fall, originally, was through a deep black gulf, with high rocky sides. Across this gulf most of the manufactories are built. There is an appearance of active industry and a spirit of enterprise, as well as of cheerfulness and contentment, that at once strikes a stranger. It is evident, too, from the number of houses of worship, schools, &c., that the moral and religious education of the rising generation is not neglected. There are eight houses of worship and a number of free-schools here, towards which the inhabitants themselves voluntarily contribute twenty-five hundred dollars per annum. The number of inhabitants in 1833 exceeded five thousand. It is to be supposed, that, among the heterogeneous materials which form the community in this place, there is a great variety of character, as well as of creeds; occasionally some differences of opinion, as well as clashing of interests; yet for the most part crime has been unknown there. It has often been the boast among the inhabitants, that, living as they do, on the borders of two States, (part, and by far the greater part, is in Troy, Mass., the other in Tiverton, R. I.,) the laws of either were seldom called to punish any thing except venial transgressions.

Fall River, too, can boast of its prowess in battle, of its Revolutionary characters, in "the times that tried men's souls." For although their humble attempts to resist invasion have not yet found a place on the pages of history, yet certain it is, the tide of war has once rolled its threatening waves as far up as to reach the shores of Mount Hope Bay. The character for bravery, generosity, and independence of mind, manifested at that period, seems to have become a part of their inheritance. Among all the changes which the increase of population causes, the primitive virtues of simplicity and hospitality are still eminently conspicuous. Whoever goes to reside there, seems to adopt readily the manners of the inhabitants. Even the labouring part of the community in the manufactories, as well as in other departments, are positively distinguished by a degree of refinement and courtesy of manners, which serve to leave the most favourable impressions in relation to manufacturing villages. I shall always recollect, with pleasure, one little incident in one of the weaving-rooms of the manufactory, where the noise was very distracting, arising from a vast number of looms going at once. The machinery suddenly stopped, and a strain of music arose simultaneously from every part of the room, in such perfect concord that I at first thought it a chime of bells. My conductor smiled when I asked him if it was not, and pointed to the girls, who each kept their station until they had sung the tune through.

At the time Newport was in possession of the British, there was an attempt made to destroy their mills at this place, consisting of saw mills, grist mills, and a fulling mill, which the bravery of the few inhabitants, men, women, and boys, prevented.

The growth of Fall River, from the period of the Revolution to the year 1812, must have been very slow; and ever since that time, until 1822, when there was but four stores in the place, of any description, and not exceeding four hundred inhabitants. The third manufactory was erected in 1821, and two more the ensuing year. In 1833, a large and elegant one was built. There are now one hundred shops and stores of various descriptions; but, excepting two or three on the Tiverton side of the village, scarcely anywhere spirituous liquors are retailed, and not a single distillery in the place. The roads north and south of the village lead through a delightful country. The view of the island of Rhode Island on the south one, is beautiful—while that leading to Taunton is scarcely less picturesque. On this road lies the little village of Assonet, where there is considerable commerce carried on. It is a singular sight to see vessels coming up to the very doors of the cottages, sheltered and shut in by the little woody point that encloses the tiny harbour—and music to hear the voices and loud laughter of numerous little urchins, who are frequently seen playing on the hull of some old vessel on the grassy strand. These fairy landscapes on the one hand, are strangely contrasted by the wildness and sterility of that on the east, which resembles a newly settled country. The land lying between Fall River and New Bedford, a distance of sixteen miles, is a perfect desert; being only diversified by bogs, rocky pastures, and forests of scrub oak and wild poplar.

We have now accurate statistics of Fall River, taken on the 1st of April last, which will show its great increase since 1843—and in giving them to our readers, in the annexed table, we ask particular attention to the amount of cotton and other raw materials consumed, and the increased value given to them by their manufacture, upon a capital comparatively small for so great an amount of business.

The advancement thus made, is cause of great congratulation, not only as regards the manufactures made in the place itself, but in the amount of tonnage employed in our internal trade, to which it gives rise, and which we here state—showing, also, the benefit derived to other States, from the industry of this one town. What is here shown, is, also, true of all other manufacturing towns in the Union. This will give the reader some idea of what is meant by the home market and home trade; for, besides the market here afforded for the coal and iron of Pennsylvania, employment must be given to our coasting vessels to transport the 54,545 tons of those raw materials from the mines from which they are extracted by our hardy miners.

To show the advantages of this more fully, we extract from the Report of the Secretary of the Treasury on our Commerce and Navigation for 1844, the amount of American tonnage cleared from the United States for the following ten foreign countries, which, in all, is but 54,166 tons:

Russia,	6,308	tons.
Prussia,	164	"
Swedish West Indies,	1,478	"
Denmark,	481	"
Dutch East Indies,	4,656	"
Dutch West Indies,	4,981	"
Dutch Guinea,	7,363	"
Belgium,	8,148	"
Hanse Towns,	12,749	"
Scotland,	7,849	"
	54,177	tons.

Surely, this speaks a language which cannot be mistaken. One manufacturing town 54,545 tons, and ten foreign countries 54,166 tons.

But we must not detain our readers from an examination of the annexed table, showing forth the value of the home industry:

STATISTICS OF FALL RIVER.

COTTON MANUFATORIES.	No. of Mills.	Number of Spindles in operation.	Pounds of Cotton consumed, y[illegible] ending April 1, '45.	Yards of Cloth manufactured during same time.	Kind of Cloth.	Gross value of Cloth.	Pounds of Yarn manufactured besides.	Value of Yarn.	Capital invested in manufacture of Cotton.	No. of Males emplyd.	No. of Females employed.
Troy C. & W. Manufactory.	2	7,364	274,300	1,207,835	28 in. printing.	$77,428	27,945	$3,492	$92,000	40	100
Pocasset Maunfacturing Co.	1	4,680	184,911	892,596	" " "	61,337			145,000	32	80
Massasoit Manufactur'g Co.	1	8,500	466,702	2,048,147	" " "	129,895			120,000	50	125
Fall River Manufactory,...	1	9,240	288,000	1,380,700	" " "	100,000			145,000	60	90
Anawan Manufactur'g Co..	1	7,556	242,816	1,261,672	" " "	94,500			150,000	50	86
Oliver S. Hawes & Co.....		512	42,500		" " "		38,460	6,408	3,000	8	9
Theophilus Shove & Co...		1,100	60,001	210,000	28 in. nankins	20,000			5,000	10	30
Totals,...............	6	38,952	1,559,230	7,030,950		$483,160	66,405	$9,900	$660,000*	250	520

CALICO MANUFACTORIES.	Number of Establishments.	Yards of Calico printed, year ending April 1.	Gross value of Calico printed.	Capital invested.	Males employed.	Females employed.
Andrew Robeson & Sons,..........................	1	8,320,000	$1,000,000	$190,000	480	14
American Print Works,..............................	1	8,320,000	1,000,000	160,000	315	34
Totals,..	2	16,640,000	$2,000,000	$350,000	795	48

WOOLLEN MANUFACTORY.	No. of Mills.	Sets of Machinery.	Pounds of Wool consumed.	Yards of Cassimere manufactured.	Value of Cassimere.	Yards of Satinett.	Value of Satinett.	Capital invested.	Males employed	Females employed.
J. & J. Eddy,..............................	1	7	160,000	140,000	$130,000	20,000	$15,000	$75,000	70	40

IRON MANUFACTORY.	Number of Mills.	Tons of Iron manufactured and not made into nails.	Value of same.	Number of Nail Machines.	Tons of Nails manufactured.	Value of same.	Capital invested.	Males employed.
Fall River Iron Works,.................................	2	2,400	$216,000	64	3,250	$260,000	$250,000	300

IRON FOUNDRY.	Number of Establishments.	Number of Furnaces.	Tons of Castings turned out.	Value of same.	Capital invested.	Hands employed.
	1	3	1,275	$44,625	$16,000	65

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* In capital invested, whatever was considered necessary in carrying on the business has been included. Dwelling-houses, and lands connected with same, owned by companies, have been omitted. The amount of articles enumerated as consumed or manufactured, is, in all cases, for the year ending April 1, 1845.

KINDS OF MANUFACTURE, OR PRODUCTION.	Number.	Value of articles Manufactured.	Capital invested.	Hands employed.
Machinery,		$124,500	$38,000	124
Steam boilers,		250	1,000	2
Tin and sheet iron,		10,000	4,000	14
Blacksmithing,		15,000	4,600	27
Copper and brass,		8,000	3,000	6
Composition gates,		3,000	1,500	3
Jewellery,		500	500	1
Cane and steel reeds,		630	700	3
Patterns for machinery,		5,500		10
Marble,		3,000	1,200	4
Carriages, &c.,		11,250	4,800	24
Furniture,		12,100	3,650	22
Mechanics' tools,		650		3
Pumps and blocks,		1,900	320	2
Oil and other casks,		2,500	2,000	3
Vessels and boats,		11,000	500	24
Trunks, harness, and hose,		12,000	3,000	11
Sperm oil and candles,			10,000	
Men's clothing,		45,700	21,850	111
Millinery and dressmaking,		3,850	2,150	17
Blank books and binding,		975	350	2
Sailmaking,		6,000	2,000	6
Cigars,		1,450	500	3
Granite prepared for market,		30,000	3,000	55
Hats and caps,	2,400	4,400	3,200	11
Boots and shoes, pairs,	6,230	10,750	3,500	38
Leather tanned, hides,	3,300	9,200	6,300	9
Soap, pounds,	160,000	4,000	3,000	4
Lumber sawed, feet,	150,000	1,500	600	7
Wood cut, cords,	2,530	6,750		45
Charcoal burned, bushels,	1,200	120		
Wool sheared, pounds,	1,375	383		

	Tons.	Value.
Iron consumed in manufacturing establishments and mechanical operations, for year ending April 1, 1845,	11,674	$435,600
Steel in ditto,	18	5,400
Coal in ditto,	21,316	106,768
Oil consumed in manufacturing, gallons,	19,548	$17,649
All other articles (except cotton, wool, iron, steel, coal, and oil) consumed in manufacturing establishments,		353,555
Vessels employed in the whale fishery, navigated by 180 men and boys,	1,989	166,000

AGRICULTURE.	Number. April 1, 1845.	Value.
Horses,	367	$25,917
Neat cattle,	444	10,661
Swine,	572	3,196
Sheep,	541	1,006
Totals,	1,924	$40,780

	Bushels raised.	Value.
Indian corn,	3,942	$2,393
Rye,	143	107
Barley,	223	142
Oats,	166	55
Potatoes,	12,150	3,172
Other roots,	1,890	422
Fruit,	4,762	1,046
Milk, sold,		1,400
Honey, pounds,	40	7
Butter, "	6,090	1,228
Cheese, "	100	7
Hay cut, tons,	545	7,526

SECRETARY WALKER'S REPORT.

We have read, with much care, the Annual Report of the Secretary of the Treasury, as presented to Congress, and feeling that our patrons will expect of us some examination of its principles, we shall proceed to the task fearlessly, and with the ardent desire to give to it that consideration which is justly due to a document emanating from so high a source.

The Secretary lays down certain principles, upon which he says the *improvements* he proposes to make in the Revenue Laws have been based.

The first of these is, "That no more money should be collected than is necessary for the wants of the government economically administered." Against this principle we have nothing to offer.

The second principle is, "That no duty be imposed on any article above the lowest rate, which will yield the largest amount of duty."

Against this principle we enter our most solemn protest, as calculated to uproot and overturn the whole system upon which the present prosperous condition of the country is based; and we are much mistaken, if we cannot show this, not by abstract theories, such as those by which it is attempted to sustain it, but by facts known to all those who have given their attention to the history, not only of our own country, but of all other prosperous countries, which have previously existed, or which now exist in the known world.

The first objection we make, in form, to this principle, is, that it is utterly impossible to reduce it to practice. How, or in what manner, can it ever be known what rate of duty will pay the greatest amount of revenue?

Every tyro in political economy knows, that the importation of foreign articles is not governed in its amount by the rate of duty levied, but by the power of the importing country to consume and pay for the articles imported, or in other words, the demand; and it is equally well known, that a country is most able to consume and pay, and that there is, consequently, the greatest demand for foreign articles, when its own people are most profitably employed.

Attempt to carry out the principle, and mark the consequences to which it would lead. Take, for instance, the article of iron.

From 1804 to 1812, the duty on that article was 15 per cent. ad valorem. Now, no man will pretend to doubt that to reduce the duties to fifteen, or even twenty per cent., at this time, on the article of iron, would, for the moment, raise the greatest amount of revenue, because it would ruin all our iron-masters, and would render us entirely dependent upon foreign countries for nearly, if not quite, our whole supply. The ruin it would produce, in wholly destroying the value of our iron mines, and the furnaces and forges throughout the country, and changing consumers into producers of agricultural productions, may be easily perceived, when it is known that iron is now made in such large quantities in the United States that those best acquainted with the subject estimate the quantity made in 1845, at

Tons of wrought iron,	291,600	
" of castings,	121,500	
" of blooming iron,	30,000	— 443,100 tons.

Now, there were imported in the year 1844,

Tons of bar iron,	46,000	
" of hammered,	17,500	
" of pig iron,	16,050	
" of scrap iron,	5,570	
" of sheet hoops, &c.,	4,157	
" of steel,	2,800—	92,077 tons.
Estimated consumption,		535,177 tons.

Thus it appears, that the greatest amount of duty would be received on iron by an immense reduction of the present rate. Nay, the principle we are reviewing would, not only on iron, but on woollen and cotton goods, reduce us to a thorough and entire dependence upon foreign supplies. For we do not deny, nor is it denied by the friends of protection, that the immense capital, the consummate skill, and the degraded labour of Europe, could undersell us in our own markets, if the tariff were so reduced as not to secure that market for our own raw material, skill, and labour.

The value to the United States of the raw material that enters into our manufactures is never taken into the calculation of the Hon. Secretary. He considers the manufacturers of the country as an isolated set of beings who receive all the benefits of the home market.

Let him converse with one of his friends from Pennsylvania, with some of whom he has a close connexion. Let him inquire of the Hon. the Vice President of the United States, what would be the effect on his native State of carrying out this principle of adjusting the tariff, so as to receive the greatest amount of revenue at the lowest rate of duties?

But suppose it so fixed, for the present, and that nearly all our iron were imported, which would undoubtedly be the effect produced, would it remain so? We have no hesitation in saying that it would not. No sum to be permanently raised upon the article of iron could be at all calculated upon, from what would at first take place. The destruction of our furnaces and forges would not affect the manufacturers alone, but would immediately destroy a vast demand for coal, and iron ore, and would annihilate a market for provisions furnished the persons employed in the manufacture of iron, who would be constrained, from necessity, to go into agricultural employments, and thus become the competitors of the very farmers whose produce they had consumed as manufacturers. This would greatly lessen the demand for iron, and consequently next year much less duty would be collected.

What is true of iron, would, also, be equally true of the woollen manufacture. A reduction of the tariff on woollens, to the rate of duty which would produce the greatest revenue, would cause an immediate glut of importations from abroad, which would form not the slightest criterion of what duty would be required to produce the same effect after the home market for the wool of the farmer was destroyed by the destruction of his neighbour, the woollen manufacturer; who, with what capital might be left to him, would, with all his hands, be driven to become producers, not of wool—for wool, too, would be sacrificed,—but of the farinaceous productions, of which we already have a superabundance. But the great object of all this Report, is, to raise the price of cotton: this we shall make more evident by a short examination of what the Hon. Secretary has to say upon that subject, which we shall here quote. "The tariff (he says) did not raise the price of our bread stuffs, but a bad harvest in England does—giving us for a time that foreign market which we should soon have at all times, by that repeal of the corn laws *which must follow the reduction of our duties*. But whilst bread stuffs rise with a bad harvest in England, *cotton almost invariably falls, because the increased sum which in that event England must pay for our bread stuffs we will take, not in manufactures, but only in specie—and not having it to spare, she brings down, to a greater extent, the price of our cotton!*" Here, then, we have the whole gist of the story. Our manufactures must all be broken down, the iron lands, iron ore, the furnaces, the forges, the wool of the farmer, the capital and skill of the manufacturer, the whole productive industry of the non-planting States, is to be broken down and ruined, that we may import more from Great Britain, because it may possibly raise the price of cotton!! Even the present increased price of grain is grudgingly permitted to the farmer, because of the supposed injury it produces to the price of cotton!

But the Hon. Secretary undertakes to prove too much, when he says we should, under his policy, have the foreign market at all times for our own grain—or, at all events, much more than *his English* friends, who advocate the same policy, will admit. Mr. M'Culloch, who is now the most approved authority on the subject of the British corn trade, in the last edition of his Commercial Dictionary, expressly states it, as his opinion, that no considerable supply could go from this country. We give his own words. After fixing the price at which the Baltic and the Mediterranean ports could supply England with all the wheat she would need—in speaking of the American corn trade, he says: "The price of wheat at New York and Philadelphia may be taken on an average at from 37s. to 40s. per quarter, and as the cost of importing a quarter of wheat from the United States into England amounts to from 10s. to 12s., it is seen that no considerable supply could be obtained from that quarter, were our prices under 50s. to 52s. It is also to be remarked, that the prices in America are usually higher than in the Baltic; so that but little can be brought from the former, except when the demand is sufficient previously to take off the cheaper wheats of the northern ports." Thus, then, vanishes the whole theory of the Hon. Secretary, as regards a market for our grain in England; and it would be the same in all the other ports of Europe which would need foreign supplies; the great store-houses of the Baltic and Mediterranean would be opened to them, and long before our farmers could be on the ground with their produce, the demand would be met, at lower prices than would remunerate us.

The Hon. Secretary admits that 400,000 bales of cotton are now manufactured in the United States. Now, no man is so ignorant as not to know that this manufacture has been built up by the protective system, and that, to a certain extent, it is still dependent upon it. There is some difference of opinion as to the effects the reduction of the duties on cotton goods would have upon our cotton manufactures; for ourselves, we have no doubt it would destroy a large portion of them—and if not destroy them *all*, those who would sustain themselves would be the rich corporations; nor could they exist, but by a reduction of the wages, which would reduce the now happy and well-conditioned men, women, and children employed, to the mere pittance given to those engaged in the same pursuits in Europe. Either this, or the suspension of operations, must be the inevitable consequence.

In the most favourable view, it would be only the rich corporations that could withstand the ruin that must follow a reduction of the duty to the principle laid down by the Hon. Secretary; and at least 300,000 bales more of cotton would be sent to Europe, to add to the over-supply of that article at present raised in the United States, and shipped abroad to glut a market already so completely overstocked.

The legislation by which it is proposed to break down our successful manufactures and great internal trade, we think can be shown to be little less than national suicide.

If we understand the Hon. Secretary's reasoning, it is principally based upon the present profits, which he alleges to be taken from the pockets of the agriculturist to enrich the manufacturer.

At this conclusion he arrives, from what he is pleased to believe is the present prosperous condition of the manufactures of the United States. Now, admitting that, for the time being, the manufacture of our own raw materials pays a good profit, is it not a certain effect of this, that increased capital should embark in it, and that profits will be diminished? Nay, is it not a well known fact, that large amounts of capital have already taken that course? Are there not a vast number of iron furnaces and foundries in process of erection? Is not this, also, the case with regard to cotton? Do we not daily hear of new cotton mills springing up in most parts of the Union? and will not an increased supply meet the demand and reduce the profits?

No principle is more sound than the one which makes all the profits of trade depend upon the demand and the supply of the various products which are to constitute its material; and it is equally true, that no one occupation or business can, for any considerable length of time, pay a much greater profit than another, where there is abundant capital for all. This is fully proven in our own experience. It is needless to enumerate the many articles of home manufacture on which the tariff is wholly inoperative, because protection has increased the skill with which they are now produced, and drawn so much capital into their fabric, that they can be furnished at a less price from the labour of our own citizens than from that of foreigners, while it is universally admitted the American article is more durable and better made than the imported; and nothing in the future is more certain, than that most of the coarser textile fabrics will, ere long, be so supplied—as cheap, or cheaper, than the imported.

Shall, therefore, our manufactures be broken down, because, at this particular moment, the demand is greater than the supply? What the business world is contending for, in agriculture, commerce, and manufactures, is not the power to produce, but a market; and shall we give up our market, doom our capital, skill, and labour, to destruction, on $250,000,000 of manufactures, increasing every day much more in production than any probable demand, at present prices, can keep pace with, under the false belief that we shall create a better market for our cotton, which, at the extravagant estimate of the Hon. Secretary, amounts to but $72,000,000. We deny, in the most positive manner, that lessening our rates of duty will produce any such effect; but, for the sake of the argument, suppose it would increase it ten or even twenty per cent., this could not be permanent. The real cause of the depression of the price of cotton, is to be found in the fact, *that the supply is too great for the demand.* And until the demand shall increase, or the quantity be diminished, no legislation can raise the price permanently.

Our foreign commerce is principally in cotton, rice, and tobacco. These three articles constituted, in 1844, two-thirds of our foreign commerce, while the exports of the agricultural and other productions of the Middle and Northern States were only about seventeen and one-half per cent; and we would ask if there is no tax upon the people to sustain this commerce? Let the Secretary look at the millions that are expended for the support of the navy, for light-houses, for our foreign intercourse, and the many other expenses which are *cheerfully paid* for the support of this commerce.

The Reporter tells us, also, that we do not consume foreign manufactures enough! This may be his view of the subject; but the Northern farmer and manufacturer may well answer him, by the fact that we consume much more in amount than the whole value of our exports of cotton, rice, and tobacco: and where are they consumed? Certainly in very small proportions in the planting States. The theory, then, of the Report, is, that such of the States as do not produce either cotton, rice, or tobacco, are to pay most of the expenses of commerce, and let our own capital, labour, and skill, remain in idleness, that we may consume more foreign manufactures—to furnish a better market for cotton, rice, and tobacco!! Now, we think this not a very modest request, to say the least of it. Nor is it one that will be very acceptable to that agricultural portion of the country for which the Sécretary would fain persuade us he has so great a sympathy.

But the Secretary states, further, that the tendency of protection is to protect capital and not labour. Will the Secretary be kind enough to tell us how capital can be employed, in exploring our mines, in erecting our furnaces and forges, in building our mills and steam-engines, in improving our water privileges—and, when all this is done, in keeping them all in active and busy employment, without creating an increased demand for labour, and a consequent advance in its price?

But to revert to the protection of capital. We think it somewhat extraordinary that the Secretary should have introduced this in a laboured argument, to convince us that we should give up manufactures for the sake of the planter! for, surely, there is no part of the industry of the United States that is more emphatically that of capital, than the raising of cotton, rice, and tobacco. The very hands that raise it, what are they but the capital of the planter? The Secretary tells us but 40,000 persons have gone into manufactures in consequence of the tariff of 1842. We cannot see the force of this assertion, admitting it to be a fact, which we are by no means disposed to do. Professor Tucker, of Virginia, tells us that in 1840 there were engaged in manufactures in the United States 791,749 persons, and the same author states the number of of slaves over ten years of age at 1,105,005 males and females. This calculation is based upon the census of 1840. Now, admitting these calculations to be very nearly correct, and there are nearly eighty per cent. of the number engaged in manufactures that are engaged in the culture of cotton, rice, tobacco, and other planting products, and the ruin to be produced upon the manufacturers by the system of the Secretary, would fall upon the whole of the manufacturing interest—as much upon those engaged in it prior to 1840, as those who have embarked in it since.

In several of the previous numbers of the National Magazine, we have shown, from public documents, the state of the labour, not only of this country, but of many others, when it has been left unprotected; and it would be but a repetition to state over again the situation of the United States under the Confederation, at the close of the wars incident to the French revolution, and at various periods since—or, to recapitulate the same state of things which we have shown to obtain in England, France, Holland, and Germany, when their labour was unprotected.

The third principle laid down by the Secretary, is, in our estimation, wholly nugatory, as far as regards the manufacturers of the United States, which is in these words:

"That below such rate, discrimination may be made, descending in the scale of duties; or, for *imperative reasons*, the article may be placed in the list of those free of duty."

The Hon. Secretary does not define what he considers to be *imperative reasons;* but it could not be, according to other principles he lays down, to remove duties on raw materials—because that would at once destroy the principle laid down that the duties should "discriminate neither for nor against any class or section."

From the whole tenor of this report of the Hon. Secretary, it would appear that he considers his duty to be, to collect the revenue, and nothing further—unless, indeed, in doing so, he can raise the price of cotton. The independence of the country never for a moment enters into his calculation. No matter what article is before him, on which to fix a rate of duty, the only question to be asked; is, at what rate of duty will a maximum of revenue result? unless, indeed, he shall find that this maximum will raise more than is required for an economical administration of the government—then he will, if possible, reduce the amount to be collected, by reducing the duty below his arbitrary rate, but in no case raise it above that rate.

We must confess we have never heard of any country in which such a system has even been thought of, much less attempted to be put in practice; nor, while human nature and human institutions remain as they are, do we ever anticipate the adoption of a theory so at war with every practical purpose for which governments are instituted; and more particularly the Government of the United States, which, according to all the records to which we have access, or which have ever come to our knowledge, was instituted purposely to acquire an independence of the ill-devised systems of Europe, which depress man in the scale of creation, by defrauding him of the relative value of his labour, and by this means have it in their power to paralyze the labour of other nations, who are weak and pusillanimous enough to suffer them so to do.

A proposition to the Congress of the United States to give up our national character, and petition again to become the colonies of Great Britain, would not, if adopted, be more destructive to the independence, the character, and the interests of the American people, than the system laid down in the Report under review—a system which could never be put into practice, but which, in the attempt so to do, would produce a ruin many times more fatal to the advancement of our country, in the present race for extended knowledge and civilization, than would any war in which we could by possibility be involved.

It is not uncommon to hear the arrogance and the colossal power of Great Britain spoken of, as inimical to the best interests of the march of free principles; and yet, by a fatality for which it is difficult to account, the advocates of the so called free trade would, if possible, induce all nations to adopt a system which would increase the wealth, the power, the resources, and, if you please, the arrogance of England, more than she can ever increase them by all her powerful army and navy, or her immense territorial possessions, or any legislation within her control.

Let other nations adopt the principles which appear to govern the Secretary of the Treasury of the United States, and Great Britain would control the civilized world.

Happily, however, for the human race, no nation does, at this time, believe in these abstract Utopian notions; but, on the contrary, each nation, looking to its own independence, gives due protection, by an adjustment of its tariff of duties, to the pursuits which will best develop its resources and sustain its power and influence—and we much mistake the spirit of the American people, if they will ever consent to sacrifice the very object of government, the general welfare, to theories which are not only unsound in principle, but which never can be reduced to practice.

We here close what we have *at present* to say on this most extraordinary document, intending, when we shall be in possession of the tables to which the Report refers, to go into a more extended examination of it.

We have omitted to answer many of the Secretary's reasonings, because we propose, on a future occasion, when in possession of his tables, fully to examine them; and we feel an entire confidence we shall be enabled to show, by facts taken from public documents, that his doctrines are unsound in principle, and destructive alike to the prosperity of our agriculture, manufactures, and commerce.

ADVANTAGES OF FREE TRADE

TO THE LANDED INTERESTS OF GREAT BRITAIN.

We dedicate the following letter to the Hon. Mr. Walker, Secretary of the Treasury of the United States; and presuming him to be guided by patriotic views in his late Report to the House of Representatives, we cannot doubt that he will feel obliged to us for the information it contains.

Of the writer, we shall say nothing more, than that his respectability cannot be doubted. He indeed does not leave us in ignorance of his character, that of "a merchant who has had transactions all over the world, (and also) a landed proprietor, who, in common with other persons interested in the soil, (of England,) is desirous to support the rent rolls." And what does he tell us? why, that, "paradoxical as it may appear," he thinks Great Britain the largest grain-exporting country in the world! because, in preparing £50,000,000 sterling exports it is impossible to tell what quantity of grain is consumed. "It is placed (says he) in the laboratory of that wonder-working machine *man*, which gives him the physical power, aided by steam, of converting it into broadcloths, calico, hardware, &c., and in these shapes your wheats find their way to every country in the world!"

How does this tally with the Hon. Secretary's Report, that we shall find a market for *our* grain in England? We have already shown, from

English authority, in the cursory examination we have as yet only had time to give of the Secretary's late report, that there is little or no chance of our supplying England with our grain; and we now offer them, from the same source, the proof that when we import the articles of broadcloths, calico, hardware, &c., from thence, we are importing the agricultural productions of England—and that, too, in a condensed form. What is a bale of broadcloth, but the wool of the farmer? the beef, mutton, pork, cheese, and other farming productions consumed by those concerned in its manufacture?

These are startling facts for our farmers—facts worth oceans of theory. There are other facts, quite as important, which do not find their way into the Report of Mr. Walker. It did not suit his purpose to tell them—but they are well known to many an honest farmer, when he has sold his clip of wool to his neighbour, the manufacturer, and when the manufacturer buys of him, or his neighbour, the miller, grain grown on the free soil of America, not charged with any freight or other expenses. He knows, also, that he buys his cloth at a less price than he used to purchase it, when it was supplied from abroad. Our farmers know more than Mr. Secretary Walker may think they know. They know that keeping our own market for the home competition of our manufacturers, will, in the end, produce the manufactured article as cheap, by such competition, as by the competition of foreigners. It is "free trade," alone, that believes the law of demand and supply is suspended in all cases, except when brought to bear upon English labour.

The American farmer reasons differently, because he has the facts before him, when he sees manufactures of iron, of cloth, woollen, and cotton, multiplying around him; and when he reads, in the daily papers, that they are so multiplying in all the manufacturing States, he justly thinks that the demand is greater than the supply, and that this universal law is operating to increase the quantity made, and consequently to lessen the price to the consumer. He knows that keeping the market to ourselves, is the way to increase the demand for what he has to sell, as it increases those branches of industry which require to be fed from his fields. Tell him, that the duty on an article adds just the amount of the duty to the cost of the article, and he will point to his shoes, to his hat, and to his other garments, and will tell you, he knows better; these are now made at home cheaper than they can be imported, and their protection has been the cause that has increased American skill and reduced the price; they are, moreover, made up principally of what he furnishes, either in the raw material, or in the food which he supplies to those who make them. The manufacturer, doubtless, has his profit, and so he should have. If a short supply sometimes gives him a little more than a remuneration, the farmer reasons, that this is the very best means of causing more capital to go into that business, and bring down the price.

Like Mr. Brown, our farmers know that all the agricultural produce consumed at home has gone to its best market, without the competition of the Russian serf, the German boor, or the Mediterranean Turk, who live upon a fare that freedom's sons could ill brook for their daily food.

Such high-souled, such noble, such independent minds, are fully aware that to be dependent upon a foreign supply of the necessaries of life, when God has blessed their country with every raw material the heart can desire, to be worked up by their fellow citizens, would be to surrender the dearest and best interests of their country, and to refuse the bounties of their Creator.

But we are going further than we intended—drawn in, to this description of the Northern farmer, from a thorough knowledge of his character—and we now give the letter of Mr. Brown, suggesting to those who conduct daily papers, throughout the Union, that they transfer it to their columns; not for the purpose of telling what is not known, to those who will read it, but to let them see, from the testimony of an English merchant and landed proprietor of high intelligence, that when English writers recommend free trade to other nations, they do it, well knowing that it is for the purpose of inducing them to buy English farming produce, in the shape of cloth, calico, hardware, &c. The letter is taken from the "Economist and Weekly Commercial Times," of Nov. 15th, 1845, and is as follows:

ADVANTAGES OF FREE TRADE TO THE LANDED INTEREST.

IN A LETTER TO JOHN ROLFE, ESQ.

My Dear Sir—In sending you my remarks on your Aversham speech, I write to you not only in the character of a merchant, who has had transactions all over the world, but in that of a landed proprietor, who, in common with other gentlemen interested in the soil, is desirous to support the rent-rolls. I think it right to state this, that you may see that, in our discussions, I stand on neutral ground. In your first observation I believe you in error, when you speak of the landed interest as the master sinew of the state. By this I understand you to mean, that it is the most wealthy and most numerous. The last census, and the collection of the income tax, will put you right on these points. My first letter to Mr. Patten will show you how the population question stands. Out of £5,250,000 raised from the income tax, £1,400,000 only is collected from land. You next allude to the League wishing to injure you. I presume it will not be denied, that all interests in this kingdom are so linked together, that none of them can suffer without the others being injured. We must sink or swim together! Paradoxical as it may appear, I think Great Britain is the largest grain-exporting country in the world, although it is impossible to estimate accurately what quantity of grain &c., &c., is consumed in preparing £50,000,000 value of exports, by which you so greatly benefit. It is placed in the laboratory of that wonderful intellectual machine, man, which gives him the physical power, aided by steam, of converting it into broadcloths, calico, hardware, &c., and in these shapes your wheats find their way to every country in the world.

Within this century, this *county* alone has had use for 1,500,000 more manufacturers, merchants, and those depending on trade, than at any previous period. These, aided and assisted by our natural advantages, have found foreign markets for you everywhere. On the other hand, your prosperity is very important to the merchants and manufacturers, for they must cease to make and export goods, or to be able to use the agricultural produce of the country, unless they can find purchases for their returns.

Now, it appears from the income of land, that the landlords have £40,000,000 annually to spend, one way or another; for it is on this sum that the £1,400,000 of income tax is paid, and it follows that a good deal of it must be laid out for wine, sugar, coffee, spirits, and other luxuries and necessaries. Can any thing, therefore, be more clear, than that it is the interest of the manufacturers and merchants, that all landlords farmers, and labourers, &c., should be sustained, and made more affluent, by which they may become more extensive customers, enabling the merchants to increase their importations. Be assured, the great movers in the League are quite aware of this, and have these objects steadily in view. You must not judge of "Cobden & Co." by what a few hotheaded people may say; and you know some who, from preconceived notions, fancy protection every thing, and miscal us destructives.

I think you must admit, that my argument, so far, is good, and that our prosperity as a nation has been in *spite* of our restrictions, and *not* in *virtue* of them; and that there is no desire with the League to inflict any losses on the landlord and the farmer; and, for a very good reason, by so doing, they would injure themselves. I give the great mass of both parties credit for being honest in their intentions, for they think they can arrive at the same ends by different means—you, by protection, we, by free trade; you fear dependence on foreigners, we are now dependent on foreigners for using your wheat in the shape of broadcloths, &c., and I wish we were more so. It is the best security among nations for the preservation of peace, and preventing increased taxation, whilst it promotes prosperity. The farmers and landlords have a natural protection, without other nations having any cause of complaint; the extent of which you do not seem at all aware of, and which Mr. Wilson's book,* and the trade of the Channel Islands, will fully explain. You fancy other nations are untaxed, and have no national debt. Pray, point them out! I think you will find, on inquiry, that the taxation of this country, taking into view its wealth and ability to pay, is as light as in any country I know, even in the United States. Indeed, I have been much astonished at the burthens that some of the States have to bear, and in part from a direct land tax. France raises about the same amount of revenue that we do, £50,000,000, and but £6,000,000 of it from the customs—£10,000,000 is from a direct land tax. We collect £20,000,000 from the customs. In Flanders, from Bamfield's lectures, it appears they pay as much as 30s. an acre, land tax. Austria has a large national debt, and an army of 460,000 men; these cannot be maintained without a heavy taxation. Prussia, when she cannot raise more money from her subjects, charges 1s. per bushel at the mill on all grain that is ground, (Holland and Austria do the same;) her large military force, (for every man in Prussia, no matter what his rank, must serve in the army for a certain length of time,) makes her taxation and expenses oppressive; and a moment's reflection, or history, will teach us that every despotic monarch squeezes his subjects for as much money as he can extract from them; this checks the accumulation of wealth and production. All the petty princes in the Zollverein, are overburdened by their military establishments. I dwell more particularly on this subject, as you seem to think the landed interest have excessive burdens on their shoulders as compared with other nations, and that they require protection: this is not so; nor are they more burthened than the other classes of the community. You are really all frightened at a shadow.

You next speak of how small an amount of value in bread is consumed by the working classes, adding, that if the price was lower it would take away rent altogether; but you forget beef, pork, mutton, milk, butter, cheese, potatoes, &c., and that rent is not a large portion of the cost. If wheat, the most convenient article for transport, is a little cheaper, other articles of agricultural produce would advance, under a prosperous trade; and that rents would not be lower you have positive proof this year: any wheat that would come here, would only help to keep at home our 100,000 human machines, and sustain our 400,000 annual increase, and again be sent away in the shape of the products of our industry. The population of Europe is increasing so rapidly with peace, that had we now a failing crop, it is a matter of great doubt whether we could get any aid from them worth notice. At Dantzic wheat is now 46s. per quarter, and in some parts of Poland 60s. France, Holland, Belgium, and Poland, will all want supplies from other countries. Belgium and Holland now admit grain without, or at a nominal, duty. The fact is, instead of keeping our people at home, to manufacture for the rest of the world, and be your best customers at your own door, for the products of the soil, our anti-commercial policy is forcing them to emigrate, to seek work elsewhere; and other nations are employing their hands to do what we could have done better for them, and at a lower price. Suppose we imported all the wheat required for their use, consider the amount of wages that would reach the agriculturist, directly or indirectly, for other descriptions of your produce, independent of wheat. Nor need you be afraid of the United States; their population is increasing still more rapidly than that of Europe; and their growth of wheat is not excessive; it was, in 1843, but 12,500,000 quarters, in 1844 it was under 12,000,000; of Indian corn in 1843 it was 62,500,000, and in 1844 only 53,000,000 of quarters. You are aware that our growth of wheat is estimated at 18,000,000 of quarters; and of all kinds of grain, beans, &c., at 60,000,000. The Americans rear an immense quantity of live stock; they keep double the quantity of horses that we do; more cattle, more pigs, and more poultry; surely, it is very desirable for you to get their Indian corn, free of duty, to feed your winter stock, and place you on a footing to compete against the Belgian, Spanish, and Dutch cattle feeders. I am afraid we could not get a very large supply of Indian corn, as the bulk, compared with value, would make it a very expensive article of import. If our government will allow you to import cheap provender to feed more cattle, it will furnish you with more manure, and enable you to grow more wheat at less expense.

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* "Influences of the Corn Laws, &c.," by James Wilson, Esq. Longman & Co.

It is obviously our true policy to increase our trade with other nations, from which they would also reap advantage; and not to irritate and provoke them, by our exclusive system, to issue hostile tariffs against us. We know they are disposed to meet us fairly; and with the advantages we have in climate, capital, security for property, intelligence, machinery, improved agricultural implements, and, above all, in that immense and cheap supply of the moving power, coal, we can afford to give higher prices for agricultural produce, to sustain the rent rolls of the landlords, and maintain England as the most powerful and posperous kingdom, and the principal workshop in the world. It is to good employment for the people, contentment at home, and peace with other nations, and not to a reduction in the price of provisions, that I look to for for the benefit to arise from the freedom of trade. You speak of the tax on malt; as long as you pay that tax, the League does not object to the foreigners paying it too; but you are too sensible a man to suppose that it falls on the land; it is on the consumer, the same as the tax I pay on the importation of sugar; for so long as wheat, beef, and mutton, pay you as well as barley, you will *grow wheat*, *beef*, and *mutton;* but when barley does better for you, then you will grow barley, notwithstanding the tax. It may, in some measure, lessen the quantity consumed, as the duty does on sugar; but this is not important; if we are a grain-importing country, it shows we have use for the land without growing barley.

The manufacturers of Manchester have, over and over again, told the government that they do not want protection—they want a free trade in every thing; therefore, the argument of their being protected should not be arrayed against them. Indeed, I think if the protecting and countervailing duties were swept away, many articles now prohibited would be as little sent here as coals are sent to Newcastle. In Mr. Wilson's publication you will find, clearly stated, what most merchants know to be an unanswerable argument against the sliding scale, or any protecting duty. I, with him, contend that it does you an irreparable injury: it professes to protect you by high duties, when you have a natural protection from low prices, which do not remunerate you—say 43s., as in 1842, and again 39s. in 1835; which low prices are produced by the stimulus and expectation of protection; and the sliding scale withdraws it, when you could, by high prices, get some compensation for your losses at the low prices; but no government dare keep the duty on grain; when it is very high it would revolutionise the country—hunger will break through stone walls. It is a remarkable fact, that from 1771, when the corn laws of that day were a dead letter, and did not interfere with the farmer, prices averaged for the following thirty-two years, up to 1804, 54s. 4d. per quarter, and they remained pretty steady, which is always desirable; for, from 1771 to 1775, the fluctuation was but 5s. 6d. per quarter; from 1781 to 1785, 8s. 4d. per quarter. From 1831 to 1839 the prices averaged only 52s. 2d. per quarter—2s. 2d. per quarter less with protection than without it. The fluctuations under those unwise enactments since 1828, have been as much as 116 per cent.:—see what an injury has been inflicted on us all by laws that create hostile feeling against the introduction of our manufactures into other countries, and which I have shown you is the medium through which we export and obtain high prices for your wheat and other agricultural productions.

Your speech contains topics so various, and seems to embrace so much of complaint, that it is impossible to reply to all minute details; and yet my letter has taken a wider range than is desirably consistent with brevity. What we free traders complain of is, that we cannot get our opponents to read the arguments for and against the corn laws. They have made up their minds that their own views are right, and they will not put themselves to the trouble, or may not have time, to investigate the truth; nevertheless, it is making its way slowly, but surely; and as the opinion of such a man as yourself has great weight with your neighbours, and the gentlemen around you, you ought not to rest in your bed without a thorough investigation of the subject. Read, therefore, and earnestly, on our side of the question, the *Economist* and the *League;* on your own side, the most approved publications which, from time to time, issue from the press; and read the speeches at protection and anti-corn-law meetings. Hold the balance without prejudice; pay no attention to intemperate expressions on either side; they are no arguments, and only annoy and mislead the judgment; and I am sure, if you will take this trouble, you will think "Cobden and his crew" a very honest set of fellows, who have toiled to obtain the knowledge they possess, not for selfish purposes, but for the benefit of mankind. I am far from blaming you for the views you have hitherto taken, when I know you are so much occupied, and when I know that protection has been considered the desideratum for the landlords. We merchants have access to information every day, from practical operations, that are not within your beat; it is, therefore, only by constant discussion and reading, that you can arrive at correct conclusions.

Ever, yours respectfully,

Richmond Hill, Liverpool. WILLIAM BROWN.

IMPORTATION OF GRAIN INTO ENGLAND.

As every thing relating to grain is at this time of much importance, we extract from an English paper, called the Economist, the following tables, and some remarks on the foreign European grain market—all which tend to confirm the opinion we have given in another place in this number of our work, that were the British corn laws suspended, or repealed to-morrow, we should profit nothing by it—for even at this time, when the disease of the potatoe has extended to Poland, and a ukase is about to be issued, prohibiting the exports of rye and other grains, *wheat* is excepted. It will be seen, by the annexed statement of the foreign grain markets, that there were shipped from the port of Dantzic alone, in the month of October last, 45,496 English quarters of eight bushels each, making 363,968 bushels of wheat, of which one-fourth part went to Holland and three-fourths to England. This, from one port of the Baltic, alone, and at a time of scarcity in Poland, shows what may be generally anticipated in plentiful seasons.

We shall give our attention to this subject, and publish what may occur in the next few months; and if we can show, as we certainly shall be enabled to do, that England can at all times procure such supplies of grain as she may need, from the Baltic and Mediterranean, at lower prices than will remunerate our farmers, most assuredly the whole fabric of "free trade" is demolished. If we *could* find a market for our surplus grain abroad, we should by no means admit that this should induce us to permit Great Britain to flood us with her manufactures. With all our present restrictions, we import upwards of $40,000,000 from Great Britain, $39,547,879 of which, in 1844, was in manufactures.

In that year our whole domestic exports to Great Britain, amounted to...	$47,794,124
Of which there was in cotton, rice, and tobacco,.....................	42,738,173
Leaving, for our forests, fishing, mines, and agriculture, but.........	$5,055,951

We do earnestly entreat our agricultural brethren to ponder well these statements, for they are of vital importance to the interests of the grain-growing States of the Union.

How are they to pay for British manufactures if they have to depend upon that source for a supply? They have neither cotton, rice, nor tobacco to give to England in exchange for her manufactures—it follows, as a matter of course, if they suffer the tariff to be adjusted upon the plan laid down by the Secretary of the Treasury, they must be left without a market for their productions. Let no one be deceived by the plausible speculations, and false reasonings about *price.* It by no means follows, as is often alleged, that they pay the foreign price with the duty added, for domestic fabrics. The reasoners on the subject, who thus contend, are fully answered, by the fact, that many low-priced cotton goods sell for less than the duty, say 4½ cents when the duty is 5 cents, and that in many of our manufactures we meet the English in a foreign market, and pay ourselves in so doing. This we are enabled to do, for the very reason, that we have a large portion of our own market secured to us, which enables us to manufacture on a large scale, and consequently at less cost. Destroy our sale at home for what we make, and we should never export one dollar of manufactures. We would not labour this subject—but we have arrived at an alarming crisis in our affairs, and it becomes the farmers to examine the question thoroughly—and to meet it. If *they* are backward and supine in the matter, before they are aware of it, we shall have the scenes of 1819 again before us. We shall be flooded with foreign goods, our specie will be exported, the currency will be disorganized, the home market ruined, the wages of labour reduced—in fine, we shall have just such scenes as, according to the report of them made to the Legislature of Pennsylvania, produced "ruinous sacrifices of landed property at sheriff sales, whereby, in many cases, lands and houses have been sold at less than a third, or a fourth part of their value, thereby depriving of their homes, and of the fruits of laborious years, a vast number of industrious farmers, some of whom have been driven to seek, in the uncultivated wilds of the west, that shelter of which they have been deprived in their native State." These are some of the very words used in the Report to which we have alluded, and of which there is much more, but having already published it, in our October number, we forbear to repeat it, and refer to page 399 of that number, where the whole of said Report will be found.

With these preliminary observations, we now submit the table and the remarks on the foreign grain market, which, as we have stated, we have taken from the London Economist, of 15th November, 1845:

A Report of the number of Quarters and the average Price of Wheat sold in the several counties of England and Wales, (*comprising the* 290 *towns named in the Act of the* 5*th Vic.*, *c.* 14,) *which governs duty, for the week ending* 8*th November*, 1845:

	qrs. sold.	Average price.			qrs. sold.	Average price.	
		s.	d.			s.	d.
London,	7,110	65	10	Cornwall,	456	61	1
Uxbridge,	888	67	8	Somersetshire,	1,215	59	4
Essex,	4,962	62	5	Monmouthshire,	297	59	11
Hertfordshire,	3,278	60	4	Gloucester,	2,014	56	0
Bucks,	720	56	0	Herefordshire,	255	59	11
Oxfordshire,	1,681	55	8	Worcestershire,	1,947	55	9
Wiltshire,	2,634	56	7	Salop,	796	59	2
Berkshire,	3,715	60	0	Staffordshire,	1,932	60	1
Surrey,	1,234	65	3	Chester,	794	57	2
Kent,	1,905	65	6	Derbyshire,	312	61	10
Sussex,	1,231	60	7	Warwickshire,	4,265	58	7
Hants,	2,219	59	0	Leicestershire,	1,322	60	7
Dorsetshire,	805	58	7	Northampton,	2,346	58	3
Devonshire,	788	61	8	Rutland,	84	59	1

	qrs. sold.	Average price. s.	d.		qrs. sold.	Average price s.	d.
Bedford,	766	58	4	Northumberland,	1,911	55	1
Huntingdonshire,	480	57	8	Durham,	1,323	60	1
Cambridgeshire,	5,493	55	9	Wales.	567	57	5
Suffolk,	5,566	62	5		———	—	—
Norfolk,	9,331	59	10	Imperial weekly average,,	115,952	59	7
Lincolnshire,	15,437	55	11			—	—
Notts,	3,078	61	6	Aggregate,		58	6
Yorkshire,	16,721	60	7			—	—
Lancashire,	3,285	57	3	Duty from November 13th to 20th, inclusive,		14	0
Westmoreland,	114	59	0				
Cumberland,	722	59	3				

Account of Corn Arrived in London, from Oct. 27 *to Nov.* 1, 1845, *both inclusive.*

	Wheat.	Barley.	Oats.	Beans.	Peas.	Flour.
English,	8,995	7,001	4,441	1,525	2,332	10,176
Total previously this year,	356,173	105,780	55,455	36,660	25,354	270,507
Scotch,	7	149	1,828	..	..	..
Total previously this year,	100	29,750	104,376	..	132	..
Irish,	..	..	11,222	..	..	..
Total previously this year,	824	3,646	654,386	..	..	1,800
Foreign,	858	98	7,673	676	523	50
Total forgn. previously this year,	305,895	127,520	396,519	40,211	9,850	15,890
Grand total for the week,	9,860	7,248	25,266	2,207	2,855	sks10,226 brls
Total British previously this year,	357,097	139,176	814,217	36,660	25,486	272,307

Total Quantity of all other kinds of Pulse and Grain.

Malt,	7,927	Linseed,	703	Mustard seed,	265
Rye,	189	Rapeseed,	34	Seed,	824
Tares,	52	Brank,	—		

FOREIGN GRAIN MARKETS.

The number of grain-laden vessels which passed the Sound for England, from the 29th Oct. to the 24th Nov., were 22 wheat, 1 barley, 8 oats, 2 peas, 3 tares, 10 linseed, and 2 rapeseed.

The letters received from Dantzic mention the probability of a ukase being issued by the Polish Government, prohibiting the export of rye and other grain, except wheat. The potato disease was very prevalent in Silesia and East Prussia, Poland and Livonia, and some measure of restriction of export may be expected from the Prussian Government; but we believe, confidently, that wheat will be an excepted article, and will be allowed to take its course, both by the Russian, Russia Polish, and Prussian Governments.

The exportation of wheat from Dantzic, during the month of October, amounts to 4,333 lasts, or 45,496 quarters, of which one-fourth part went to Holland, and the rest to England; Belgium has taken no wheat from Dantzic during the whole month of October. The rate of freight at Dantzic was 6s. per quarter to London, 5s. to Newcastle, 7s. to Liverpool, all paid on the 4th November. The price of wheat is quite as dear in Warsaw as at Dantzic, and the price of rye F 30 to 31½ per korzec = F 450 to 472 per last = 42s. to 43s. per quarter, English measure and money. Some few shipments are still making at Dantzic for account of proprietors, who are not satisfied with the advanced prices, and 15,000 to 20,000 quarters are about to be shipped on consignment, before the winter closes the navigation for the season.

The lower Baltic markets present no change of importance; the principal collectors seem to have fixed 50s. as the price, which they are willing to pay for wheat to hold over till the spring.

The Mediterranean markets continue in a state of excitement and confusion; we are informed that some cargoes of wheat at Leghorn, loaded for England, have been relanded—the price of 53s. there is the price which is paying here for the same wheat in bond.

The Odessa market was again rather dearer, and 50,000 chetwerts changed hands, principally to Italian houses, at 1½ ruble per chet. advance, or 2s. per quarter; still the quoted price of 23s. ro. is too low a rate to be maintained when the Italian news arrives, and the orders from England are received, of which the Russian proprietors were ignorant on the 20th ult., but of which the Italians and others in the Mediterranean were duly informed on the 31st ult. We expect, in the course of fourteen days, to hear of an important rise of prices at Odessa.

In the Danube the rates still continue moderate, but ships are almost wholly wanting, and money is exceedingly scarce—as far as the present season is concerned, it is much too late to look to the Danube for supply, as no ships can reach there till the spring. We estimate that the few vessels near the river, and those ordered from Constantinople, may get away 50,000 to 60,000 quarters, of all grain, before the year closes, the greater part of which is Indian corn for Italian account, and about 20,000 quarters of wheat for Great Britain, which has a chance of getting away. —*Body & Co.'s Circular.*

TRADE BETWEEN ENGLAND AND FRANCE.

We place on record the following table for future reference, taken from the Economist, of November 15, 1845. The comparative trade of France, the next door neighbour of England, and of ourselves, 3,000 miles off, must surely strike our readers with something like astonishment. While our imports in 1844 from Great Britain were as we have stated, $47,794,124
Those of France were - - - £2,204,176
Which, reckoning the £ sterling at $4 80, is - - 24,980,044

Excess of imports into the United States, - $22,614,080

If any of our readers should happen to be uninformed on this subject, and wish to know why this is so, we answer, because the French government is a paternal government, and protects its industry. The population of France is 35,000,000. Of the United States rather more than one-half. Yet that one-half consumes double the quantity of British manufactures! but, according to the Secretary of the Treasury of the United States, does not yet consume enough!

We commend the following table to the advocates of "Free Trade," which fully proves that France firmly adheres to the protective policy, although labour is cheaper there than in England!

TRADE OF GREAT BRITAIN WITH FRANCE.

The following important account of the Exports and Imports from France, between the years 1814 *and* 1844, *was lately issued from the Parliamentary Paper office:*

Years.	EXPORTS TO FRANCE.				Years.	IMPORTS FROM FRANCE.	
	Declared Value of British and Irish produce and manufactures.	Official Value.				Official Value.	Amount of import duties (customs and excise.)
		British and Irish produce and manufactures.	Foreign and Colonial merchandise.	Total.			
	£	£	£	£		£	£
1814,......	582,703	377,799	1,870,337	2,248,136	1814,......	740,227	913,128
1815,......	298,292	214,824	1,228.858	1,443,680	1815,......	754,372	1,182,843
1816,......	407,700	321,070	1,313,152	1,634,222	1816,......	417,783	992,367
1817,......	1,003,486	596,753	1,054,262	1,651,015	1817,......	527,866	1,017,354
1818,......	369,504	318,851	877,912	1,196,763	1818, ...	1,162,424	1,145.845
1819,......	299,493	248,078	734,780	982,858	1819,......	642,012	1,335,952
1820,......	390,745	334,087	829,814	1,163,901	1820,......	775,132	1,412,548
1821,......	438,266	382,404	1,037.101	1,419,505	1821,......	865,617	1,501,430
1822,......	437,009	346,811	839,150	1,185,961	1822,......	878,273	1,610,329
1823,......	349,636	241,837	743,575	985,412	1823,......	1,115,800	1,723,827
1824,......	338,635	260,498	864,501	1,124,999	1824,......	1,156,734	1,838,411
1825,......	360,710	279,212	892,403	1,171,615	1825,......	1,835,985	1,967,499
1826,......	488,438	436,820	656,124	1,082,944	1826,......	1,247,426	2,037,165
1827,......	446,951	416,726	133,504	550,230	1827,......	2,625.746	2,057,831
1828,......	498,939	448,945	195,498	644,443	1628,......	3,178,825	2,176.233
1829,......	491,381	509,925	337,897	847,818	1829,......	2,086,994	1,963,257
1830,......	475,884	486,284	181,065	667,349	1830,......	2,317,686	1,963,400
1831,... ..	602,688	636,097	256,082	892,179	1831,......	3,056,155	1,936,698
1832, ...	674,791	847,487	621,822	1,469,309	1832,......	2,452,894	2,271,249
1833,......	848,333	997,321	314,317	1,311,638	1833,......	2,577,215	2,015,540
1834,......	1,116,885	1,280,667	546,923	1,827,590	1834,......	2,808,256	2,056,551
1835,......	1,453,636	1,561,915	505,349	2,067,261	1835,......	2,746,999	1,956,689
1836.......	1,591,381	1,700,665	644,950	2,345,615	1836,......	3,125,978	1,972,492
1837,......	1,643,204	2,036,844	839,207	2,876,051	1837,......	2,707,587	1,900,648
1838,......	2,314,141	3,193,923	691,080	3,885,003	1838,......	3,431,118	1,988,267
1839,......	2,298,307	3,118,410	514.243	3.632,653	1839,......	4,022,790	1,986.056
1840,......	2,378,149	3,543,665	627,038	1,170,703	1840,......	3,775,754	1,913,037
1841,......	2,902,002	4,709,588	806,200	5,515,783	1841,......	3,654,428	1,969,135
1842,......	3,193,939	5,506,842	683,872	6,190,714	1842,......	4,160,509	2,059,634
1843,......	2,534,898	4,305,616	765,187	5,070,803	1843,......	3,387,741	1,741.660
1844,......	2,656,259	4,375,228	828,948	5.204,178	1844,......	3,687,878	1,879,799

WILLIAM IRVING.

Office of the Inspector-General of the Imports and Exports,
Custom-house, London.

INVENTION.

When the fathers of the Republic sent forth to the admiring world the Declaration of Independence, it was given principally in the spirit of prophecy. So far as perfect freedom from the trammels of foreign legislation was considered, that independence was, of course, immediate; but the real, the complete independence, which they foreshadowed, and which they could discern only in the visions of the future, is now proclaimed in our works. The *true* signers of our Declaration of Independence are our artisans, our mechanics, and our farmers, who, each successive year, from the most distant States, proclaim it to the world with newer, and better, and stronger assurances of freedom: they individually exhibit before their fellow-citizens the magnificent achievements of their invention, the pledges of their national birthright: they show what they have already accomplished, to promise what they will perform hereafter for the glory and honour of their country, and to send forth a voice to the national capitol that shall ring among its marble corridors with irresistible eloquence.

It is too often thought that riches, or immense accumulations of the precious metals, constitute the wealth of nations: but the true wealth of a nation depends on its resources, while these principally depend on the inventive genius of the people. "Give me," said the ancient mathematician, "whereon to stand, and I will move the earth!" "Give me," might a modern mathematician exclaim, "a people of original inventive genius, and the whole world shall not move them!" Such are the Anglo Saxons of America—a people, who, though newly sprung into national existence, already surpass all others in the true elements of wealth, power, and independence.

Invention is justly regarded as the highest characteristic of genius. Indeed, without invention genius cannot exist. It is remarkable how man is situated with respect to nature, for the development of this power. The unaided strength of man is wholly inadequate to the supply of his ordinary wants. The original natural forces are few and of little assistance to the labourer. No natural auxiliaries have a *working point* of their own. There are no machines in nature external to man. The materials are amply provided, but they must be adapted to the desired object, and modified by mechanical genius. All mechanical adaptations are combinations of a few simple powers; yet how vast, how complicated are many of these arrangements for the production of the most simple effects. Did your space permit it, it would be interesting to examine the metaphysics of these wonders; for machinery is nothing less than stereotyped intellectual formulas, which express the rational processes by which end, cause, and effect, are discerned in their mutual relations.

No limit can be assigned to the possible combinations of the mechanical powers; for wherever an end is desired to be attained, the invention of man is sure to find out the means. The very nature of invention secures this result. It was an ancient maxim, that "man can do whatever he believes he can do;" for such belief arises from a perception of practicability in all attainable objects, a confidence which could not exist but from the highest reason, which assures us of complete success. Therefore, Napoleon would not allow the word "impossible" to be uttered in his presence, and the passage of the Alps was the consequence.

Inventive genius is necessarily prophetic. It does not conclude a thing to be possible, because other things have been accomplished. It is not aided in its conception by any logical process: but it perceives the effect as already attained, before the means of its attainment are elaborated: but the development of means is always a logical method by which the end and the effect are connected. Hence the truly original inventor never despairs. Hence his prophetic discernment, and his unshaken faith in the midst of mediate embarrassments. He knows that what he looks for exists in the nature of things, or in their possible arrangements, and accordingly his attention is alive to the use of apparently the most trifling accessories.

When the Argands had constructed their lamp, that invention which has never been surpassed for simplicity or beauty of design and execution, the chimney not being as yet thought of, an experiment was made of its power. The fire circled the wick, and the dense smoke evolved from it proclaimed its failure. The inventors gazed at the imperfect instrument in silence, but not in despair. There happened to lie on the table the fragment of a Florence flask, the neck and a small part of the body alone remaining. One of them, prompted by a sudden suggestion, placed it over the flame, and the next moment they embraced each other in mutual congratulations at their success. Such are the apparent accidents that frequently crown the labour of years with triumph: but it will generally be found, that what are commonly regarded as accidents, are, in fact, the effect of that *observation of little things*, which is the sure concomitant of inventive genius. Every body has heard of Newton and the falling apple; the same habit of observing things of such frequent occurrence that they escape the attention of the many, characterises every man of genius, who generalizes a simple natural phenomenon into a law of nature, and deduces therefrom the most universal principles.

While Gallileo, yet a youth, was standing in the cathedral of Pisa, his attention was arrested by the swinging of its large lamp, the vibrations of which, whether great or small, he found to succeed in equal intervals. To the tens of thousands who had from time to time observed the same appearance, it was a swinging lamp, and nothing more; to the inventive genius of Gallileo, it was a revelation of a great truth, and thereupon he constructed the pendulum. I have said that original inventive genius is necessarily prophetic. When our American JOHN FITCH, who, fifty years ago, conceived the idea of propelling carriages and vessels by steam, was overwhelmed with obstacles, he wrote to Rittenhouse, in the full faith of a seer, "It would be much easier, Sir," he says, "to carry a first-rate man-of-war by steam, than a boat, as we would not be cramped for room, nor would the weight of machinery be felt. This, Sir, will be the mode of crossing the Atlantic, in time, for packets and armed vessels, whether I live to bring it to perfection or not." On another occasion, he remarked to a company of incredulous friends, "Well, gentlemen, although *I* shall not live to see the time, *you* will, when steamboats will be preferred to all other means of conveyance, and especially for passengers; and they will be particularly useful in the navigation of the river Mississippi." But it is the fate of all men, who think in advance of their age, to be regarded as deranged: and he was one of them. "In conformity with his wishes," says his biographer, "he was buried on the shores of the Ohio, that he might repose, as he said, *where the song of the boatmen would enliven the stillness of his resting-place, and the music of the steam-engine sooth his spirit.*"

There is one remarkable fact in the history of great inventions which has as yet received no adequate attention, though it is eminently deserving of philosophic notice. I refer to the simultaneous invention of the same mechanical contrivance by different minds. It is in vain to ascribe it to a general level of scientific attainment, for it is commonly in advance of the times. The true explanation of it can only be found in the connexion existing between spiritual and natural things, and thus it is, in the true philosophy of causes, a branch of possible science as yet almost wholly unexplored, and which is assigned for the study of the next generation. If, however, we call to mind the many instances within our own knowledge of simultaneous invention, even in different quarters of the world, we shall have food enough for reflection. I allude to this subject now, because the invention of Fitch would seem to detract from the originality of Fulton; but when that remarkable fact connected with great inventions is philosophically understood, no such conclusion can be drawn: for it will be found that there is a unity in the minds of men in every epoch of time, and that those of the same cast or quality are recipients of the same influences. The original capacity of Fitch and of Fulton may have been equal; but the latter excelled the former as a mathematician, while he possessed the further advantage of living in the nineteenth century. And this leads me to a brief consideration of education as a means of developing the faculty of invention.

It is a well-established fact, that the people of the United States surpass all others in original inventive power. This pre-eminence is to be ascribed, in the first place, to their superiour organization as men; in the second place, to the development of their minds, and to the rational means afforded by education. Men of high original power think algebraically, in spite of the deficiencies of education, and from a natural longing for universal arithmetic, seek out, and secure to themselves, the facilities afforded by mathematics: but there are various degrees of excellence, and many superiour minds, whose inventions would reflect honour on their country, are incapacitated for action, from neglect of the opportunities within their reach. If they would read popular works on mechanics and other sciences, instead of the trash which lumbers the shelves of the bookseller, and sets the seal of death on all our native literature, their spark of genius might be kindled into flame, and the region of useful knowledge be extended. To the highest genius, the faults of his predecessors are suggestive of the truest results: to the less elevated, there is a continuous accession of ideas from the highest. Every encouragement, therefore, is offered to him who will study the part—for it has been well said, that a dwarf on a giant's shoulders can see further than the giant.

Inventive genius may be said to be universal in its character, and it would be easy to cite authorities to prove that true ideal, and true mechanical genius are coincident. The greatest mechanical genius with whom I am acquainted, is HIRAM POWERS, the sculptor; who is only not a Fulton, because there has been one already, but never before a POWERS, the sculptor. Among professed poets, it is only necessary to instance *Darwin*, who, had he not been led away by more alluring pursuits, might, perhaps, have emulated the most sublime mechanical inventors; he was a true seer in science, and before the opening of the nineteenth century thus uttered his vision of the triumph of steam.

> Nymphs! you erewhile on simmering caldrons play'd,
> And call'd delighted Savary to your aid;
> Bade round the youth explosive steam aspire,
> In gathering clouds, and wing'd the wave with fire;
> Bade with cold streams the quick expansion stop,
> And sunk the immense of vapour to a drop.

Press'd by the ponderous air, the piston falls
Resistless, sliding through its iron walls:
Quick moves the balance-beam of giant birth,
Wields his large limbs, and, nodding, shakes the earth.
The giant-power from earth's remotest caves
Lifts, with strong arm, her dark reluctant waves;
Each cavern'd rock and hidden den explores,
Drags her dark coals, and digs her shining ores.
Next, in close cells of ribbed oak confined,
Gale after gale, he crowds the struggling wind;
The imprison'd storms through brazen nostrils roar,
Fan the white flame, and fuse the sparkling ore.
Here, high in air, the rising stream he pours
To clay-built cisterns, or to lead-lined towers;
Fresh through a thousand pipes the wave distils,
And thirsty cities drink the exuberant rills."

Such, and still more, was the prophetic voice of *Darwin*, whose visions have been almost realized.

But I must not permit myself to go too far into the regions of science, for they are illimitable. Nothing is too great for its comprehension, and nothing to small for its notice.

That very law that moulds the tear,
And bids it trickle from its source;
That law preserves the Earth a sphere,
And guides the planets in their course.

HARTFORD AND NEW YORK RAILROAD.

We have just received a "Report of the Executive Committee upon the Statistics of Business, and of the Engineer upon the Survey of the several Routes for the contemplated New York and Hartford Railroad, *via* Danbury. Hartford: press of Case, Tiffany & Burnham. 1845."

Had this Report reached us in time, we should have been glad to have availed ourselves of the large amount of information it contains, as well in the text of the Report, as in the statistical tables. This, however, is now out of our power, as the January number of our work is made up. We shall have, therefore, to defer it till our next. Meantime, we take sufficient space to give the concluding remarks of the engineer, with Table A—showing the summary of inclinations and distances; Table B—the expense of operating on the road; and Table C—the estimate of the total cost of the road. This we do, to the exclusion of other matter, to evince our thankfulness to the Committee who sent us the Report. In our February number we shall take the subject up more fully, and shall, also, show the industrial statistics which accompany the Report of the committee, and which speak a language not to be mistaken, in favour of the land of steady habits, and sound principles of political economy.

CONCLUDING GENERAL REMARKS.

It should be a source of much satisfaction to you, gentlemen, who have been intrusted with the particular charge of this survey, that so favourable a result has been obtained; as it certainly is to me that my labours have been so entirely successful. I have now completed all that the instructions seemed to call for, (except so far as they relate to the collection of the statistics of business, which, owing to the fact that my time was wholly occupied with the survey, was arranged to be performed by the Committee,) and have shown, from the results which have been communicated to you, that the route is practicable; that it is shorter than any travelled route between Hartford and the State line; that the expense of constructing it is by no means beyond the average cost of railroads which have been constructed as permanently as provided for in this estimate; and I have, also, shown that it is perfectly practicable to carry a branch from it, up the valley of the Farmington, to Collinsville; beyond which, it is well known that there is no difficulty in the way of its extension.

The general course of the route is very direct, at no place diverging more than three miles from an air-line drawn from Hartford to Danbury. In a final location its character can be much improved, both as respects alignment and cost of construction. Our aim has been, in all cases, to place the line upon ground that could be taken in a final location, without a greater sacrifice in directness, than would be made by a judicious engineer; and which, at the same time, would present quantities sufficient to provide for any change that it might become advisable to make. In respect to curves and grades, the line we have run will not lose in comparison with any of the great *thoroughfares* of our country. In fact, the maximum grade, upon this route, is 23 feet per mile less than upon the Boston and Albany Railroad; and yet, upon that road, the Company is daily transporting immense quantities of freight and a large number of passengers; indeed, one of the great objects of that road is to carry freight and to compete with water communication.

On the 53 miles of the New York and Erie Railroad which are completed and in use, there are about 20 miles having the maximum grade of 60 feet per mile. The minimum radius of curvature is 955 feet, and the length of curvid line is about the same as upon this route. We have then, in this portion of the New York and Erie Railroad a remarkably close resemblance, in respect to curves, grades, &c., to those of the Hartford and Danbury; and yet, as appears from the Tables, which have been politely furnished to me by H. C. Seymour, Esq., superintendent, the average expense, for four years, (from the time of opening that road to September 30th, 1845,) is, for the transportation of freight per ton per mile, only $0.03130, of which .00667 is for loading and unloading, owing to the peculiar terminus of that road, and not chargeable to this, leaving the *actual cost* $0.02463 per ton per per mile; and per passenger per mile $0.01365. This certainly shows a very flattering result, and most conclusively settles the question as to the feasibility of our route.

By reference to the profile drawn upon the large map, it will be seen, that the maximum grade is disposed of in the most judicious manner for an economical working of the road. The grades at the commencement of the several routes at Hartford, and at either terminus which may be selected in New York State, are gentle; by this circumstance the engineer will be enabled to get a full head of steam upon the engine preparatory to ascending the maximum grade, by which the train will be brought upon the summit; after which, in a short distance, a descent commences, which will enable the engineer to accumulate steam and in like manner be prepared for the ascending grade which follows. This route will therefore have, in a great measure, all the advantages which can be claimed for an undulating road.

By connecting with the Harlem Railroad, this route can be said to terminate directly in the heart of the city of New York, as it would, by connecting with the Hartford and Springfield, in that of Boston, and thus form the great artery through which would flow streams of travel and business of every description; which is an advantage that cannot be claimed for any other route, at the present time in operation, between these two great cities.

I would close this report, by stating that I have not thought it expedient or necessary in this survey—the design of it being, mainly, to determine the practicability, and the expense as nearly as possible, of constructing a Railroad from Hartford, via Danbury, to the easterly line of the State of New York, in the direction of the city of New York—to survey or examine with especial reference to the location of *depots* at particular points. This is a subject which belongs properly to the *Directors*, who will be chosen, by the stockholders, to perform this, among other duties, at the time of making the *final location*. In order to determine the proper location of *depots*, it is necessary to be in possession of a complete knowledge of the amount and kind of business in the various places to be accommodated, as well as of their situation in respect to the present modes of communication.

Although my time was limited, and although for reasons above stated I gave but a passing attention to this subject, yet I can say, with some degree of certainty, that points may be selected, on the routes which have been surveyed, for the location of depots, which, varied and extensive as is the business of the towns to be accommodated by their location, will, nevertheless, accommodate them all. Besides, the interest of the Company and that of individuals in this question is a common one, which is the strongest guarantee the latter can have that proper locations of depots will be made.

In respect to the termination in Hartford, the same principles are applicable; and it is only necessary to say, further, that the several routes have been terminated at a point —to wit, where Asylum street is crossed by the Springfield Railroad—from which any point in the city or upon the Connecticut river, which a judicious location would require, may be reached. All of which is

Respectfully submitted, by your obedient servant,
EDWARD H. BRODHEAD, *Chief Engineer.*

(TABLE A.)—SUMMARY OF INCLINATIONS AND DISTANCES.

Inclination in feet per mile.	Distance in miles.	Ascent in feet.	Descent in feet.
Level,	1.1500		
10 to 20	4.1875	53.830	6.00
20 to 30	2.4000	45.800	13.80
30 to 40	1.6250	0.000	61.00
Totals,	9.6250	99.530	80.80

(TABLE B.)—ANNUAL EXPENSE OF OPERATING THE ROAD.

Motive Power Department.

Repairs of locomotives,	$4,000 00	
" cars,	5,000 00	
" machinery in shops,	2,000 00	
Contingencies, (watchmen, &c..)	500 00	
Total,		$11,500 00

Way and Building Department.

Repairs of roadway,	6,000 00	
" superstructure,	12,000 00	
" buildings,	500 00	
Contingencies, (clearing track, &c.,)	3,000 00	
Total,		21,500 00

Operating Department.

Engineers and firemen,	5,000 00	
Conductors and brakemen,	7,000 00	
Fuel,	13,000 00	
Oil and waste,	2,000 00	
Loading and unloading,	4,000 00	
Porters, watch, switchmen,	1,000 00	
Wood and water, station attendance,	2,000 00	
Agents and clerks,	6,000 00	
Stationary, fuel, &c., for offices,	2,000 00	
Contingencies, losses, (damage, &c.,)	1,000 00	
Total,		43,500 00

General Expenses.

Superintendence,	5,000 00	
Advertising,,	1,000 00	
Total,		6,000 00
Grand Total,		$82,000 00

The above estimate of the expenses of operating the road, is sufficient for conveying 150,000 passengers, and from 50,000 to 60,000 tons of freight, over it annually.

(TABLE C.)—ESTIMATE OF COST.

From station to station.	Average Hauling in chains.		Cubic Yards.			Quality of Excavation.	Price per Yard.	Amount.	
			Excavation Deposited.		Emb'kt. Procured.				
	Carts.	R. R.	In Embankm't.	In Spoil Bank.				Dolls.	Cts.
0 to 34	8		1,707			Stony.	22	375	54
“ “				4,487		Common earth.	13	583	31
34 to 80	16		3,254			Stony.	26	845	04
“ “				1,357		“	20	271	40
80 to 110	8		2,812			Sand.	14	393	68
“ “					1,166	“	15	174	90
110 to 172	8		5,237			“	12½	653	63
“ “					8,799	“	12½	1,099	88
172 to 202	12		1,070			“	14	149	80
202 to 260		20	19,604			Stony.	18	3,528	72
“ “				1,133		Sand.	12½	141	62
260 to 291	10		4,418			Common earth.	16	706	88
291 to 344					18,308	“	14	2,563	12
344 to 402		16	13,730			¼ Stone, ¾ sand.	16	2,196	80
402 to 420	14		4,191			Sand & gravel.	16	670	55
420 to 442	14		1,208			“	16	193	28
“ “					1,189	“	14	165	66
442 to 480	6		690			Rock.	75	517	50
“ to 480	4		820			Common earth.	13	106	60
“ “					2,209		14	309	26
480 to 532		14	10,914			Some stone	17	1,855	38
“ “				1,822			13	236	86
532 to 584	10		1,817			Sand.	13	236	21
“ “					1,573		43	204	49
584 to 612	16		3,305			Stony.	25	826	25
“ “	8		1,537			Rock.	100	1,537	37
612 to 622	6		1,574			Common earth.	14	220	36
“ “				3,834		Stony.	17	651	78
622 to 652					2,223	Sand.	12½	277	88
652 to 684	14		2,295			Common earth.	17	390	15
“ “			2,695			Rock.	75	2,021	25
“ “					1,583	Common earth.	12½	197	88
684 to 749	10		3,678			“	15	551	70
“ “			786			Rock.	100	788	00
“ “					6,413	Common earth.	15	961	95

Amount for Excavation and Embankment,........................		26,604 69

Summary of Structures.

4 Bridges,..	$5,930 00	
20 Culverts,..	3,736 00	
6 Road crossings,..	263 00	
10 Farm crossings,..	200 00	
10 Cattle guards,..	500 00	
Changing roads,..	882 00	
Grubbing and clearing,..	600 00	
Total of Structures,..............................		11,571 00

Equipments.

1 Locomotive engine,..	7,000 00	
2 Depot buildings and fixtures for watering,..............	4,000 00	
1 machine and repair shop,..	3,000 00	
1 Engine house,..	3,000 00	
1 Passenger car,..	1,800 00	
4 Freight cars,..	2,800 00	
Turnouts, turntables, and signs for crossings,............	6,000 00	
Total of Equipments,..............................		27,600 00
Land, fence, and damages,..		12,000 00
Superstructure for the T rail, at $7,500 per mile,....................		70,218 75
Total Cost,..		147,994 44
Per mile,.................... ... $15,807 15		

THE IRON TRADE OF EUROPE, &c.

We have received per the last British Steamer, which left Liverpool 4th December, our regular files of the Mining Journal up to the 29th of November, from which we make the following extracts.

By these it will be seen with what activity the capital, skill, and industry, not only of England, but of all the Continental powers, is driven to the utmost, to meet the demand occasioned by the improving spirit of the age, which appears to be on the increase, although, from former accounts, there did really not appear much room for such an augmentation of impetus as is in progress in every direction.

While this is going on all over Europe, it seems almost impossible to give credence to the fact, that an American Secretary of the Treasury should present, to the assembled representatives of this great nation, a proposition to arrest the march of the United States in this noble career.

Still the fact is so, and those who do not wish to see us reduced, to become again hewers of wood and drawers of water to Trans-Atlantic masters, must buckle on their armour and prepare for the conflict; lest, before we are aware of it, a deed shall be done, the effects of which will cost the people of this country years of toil, and hundreds of millions of dollars, ere they can again place the general welfare in its present prosperous condition.

Let no one "lay the flattering unction to his soul" that it cannot, and therefore will not, be done. We can hardly bring *ourselves* to believe that such an act of national suicide can ever be consummated. But we did not think it possible that such an obliquity of intellect could be found among us, as that must have been, which concocted the Report, but now put forth from the Treasury Department, and therefore we think it behooves every lover of his country, and her independence, to be on the alert.

We have stated more fully our views in another part of this number, of the Report of the Secretary of the Treasury; and the preceding luminous article, in this number, from the pen of the Hon. James Tallmadge, takes so full a view of our foreign relations and home pursuits, that we forbear, at this time, to say more, and proceed with our extracts from the Mining Journal, as follows, viz:

RISE IN THE PRICE OF IRON ON THE CONTINENT.

At the last monthly meeting of the iron-masters of Belgium, it was decided that the price of trade iron made by coke should be fixed as follows: Soft iron, No. 1, £1 the 100 killogrammes, (200 cwts;) half hard, No. 2, £1 2s. 6d.; hard iron, No. 3, £1 5s. This price presents an increase of 5s. on the former quotations; it was also decided that, from the 20th inst., the price of rails should be raised in consequence from 16s. to £1 5s. per 190 kilo's. At the forges of St. Dizier, the market price of iron has been rising for several months, as well as cast metal, and this is expected to increase progressively every week, in consequence of the high price of wood and coal, which will be much higher during the ensuing year of 1846, as all the contracts entered into are at least twenty per cent. higher than what they were a few years back. Wrought-irons at St. Dizier, made by coal, are quoted at certain forges £15 5s. for the provinces, and from £14 16s. to £15 for Paris. The department of the Marne has made some very extensive demands, even at that price. At La Blaise the sales have been done at £15 5s. for Paris, and £15 15s. for the provinces; these prices are, however, barely sustained, but as there is such a demand for railway contracts, the parties are obliged to submit to the demands of the iron-masters. The last transactions in *white cast metal* have been done at £15, although £15 10s. is sometimes obtained. The following are the results of the sales of iron at the fair of Chalons-sur-Saone—viz: The metals of Comte have been sold at £10 10s.; the metal half rock of the Upper Marne, £8; ditto, rock ditto, £8 10s.; fine iron of Comte, £23 5s.; hammered iron of Burgundy, £15 5s.; ditto of Poissons, (rock by coal,) £15 16s.; ditto, (rock by wood,) £17 5s.; flattened iron of the Marne, £14. These prices offer great profits to the iron-masters; there were a great number of purchasers, but sellers were rather scarce. At the fair of Chalons of 1846, it is expected there will be a great deal of business doing, and that at high prices, as the demand for iron throughout France is so rapidly increasing, in consequence of the progress of railways, machinery, and iron ship-building: it will also, it is expected, greatly increase during the ensuing year.

THE PRICE OF IRON IN FRANCE.

The price of iron is on the rise at Paris in a progressive manner. The iron of Champagne, called "half rock," made by coal, is worth 400 fr., or £16 the 1,000 kil. The drawn and flattened iron of Chatillonnais has been firm at £15 8s. In consequence of a meeting held by the principal iron merchants of Paris, it is the intention of carrying the price to £16. Some houses, who have a few good samples, the assortment of which is generally wanting in Paris, keep their prices very firm. The flattening forges in the environs of Paris are in too full work either to replace the supplies which are wanting, in consequence of the interruption of the arrivals, or for re-passing under the cylinders any considerable quantity of the iron from Aveyron, of old make, so as to improve it, and convert it into the current samples of the market in general. In consequence of the carpenters of Paris having returned to full work, after entering into a satisfactory agreement with their masters, the iron nail trade has rapidly increased, and prices become higher.

MEETING OF THE FRIENDS OF INDUSTRY.

We perceive, by the *Moniteur Industriel*, that several of the most eminent engineers and manufacturers have formed the project of holding a congress, or general meeting, of the leading scientific men throughout France, for the purpose of discussing the improvements that may be made in mining operations, machinery, manufactures, and the general industry of the country, which will be represented by their respective members. The provisional committee has not yet been entirely formed; but every day there are new accessions of the most scientific men, who are sending in their adhesion and strong approval of the formation of an association which may render such eminent services to every branch of industry, unconnected with any political feeling or danger to the state. As soon as the list is complete, it will be then decided by a council when the first congress shall be held. In the meantime, many names of distinction have been put down as members of the provisional committee, among which, figure several peers of the realm, extensive holders of mines, forges, the constructing of machinery, and many other perfections in the metallic, as well as the manufacturing, industry of the different departments. It is expected that this will be one of the best attended of any association that has ever been projected or established in Paris, or any other part of France, being purely of a scientific nature, confined to the improvement of the resources of the country, now that such a rapid progress is making in every branch of national industry in England, Belgium, and Germany.

SCOTCH AND WELSH IRON.

Notwithstanding the increased consumption of iron which must arise from the carrying out our numerous railways, as well as fulfilling export orders, there has been, during the week past, a tendency to a decline wholly unaccountable; in Scotland, particularly, makers have been more inclined to sell, and some thousands of tons of pig iron have changed hands at 75s. per ton; one parcel of 1,000 tons was done at 72s. 6d., and we have heard of as low as 70s. having been accepted. Welsh has retained its price from 95s. to 110s., and railway bar has been obtaining £12 per ton; the consumption continues to be very large, while prices remain lower than those of the corresponding period of last year, which may, in a measure, be attributed to the absence of all transactions for delivery next year, which must materially have increased the amount of business. In Staffordshire, and Wales generally, prices remain firm, and manufactured iron keeps its position in the market. It is expected the works in operation will be unable to meet the demand; and in France, with the certainty that they must shortly import largely from England or elsewhere, prices are gradually advancing: railway iron is now selling in that country for from £14 to £16 per ton, and at that figure there is not sufficient to meet the demand.

THE LONDON TIMES.—GREAT SHEET.

By far the greatest novelty of the past week has been the Railway Broad Sheet published by the *Times*. Spread out, it is, beyond all comparison, more like the maintop-sail of one of her Majesty's vessels than a letter-press folio. *Homer's Catalogue of the Ships* is, perhaps, the most extraordinary book in the great *Iliad*, and, certainly, this railway chapter is the most extraordinary one in the vast volume now for some weeks issuing from the presses in Printing-House Square. The steady, calculating mind of England is charged with madness by that practiced and public exascerbator—the *Times*. We merely meant to treat this little island to all the new highways it wanted; and, lo! we are charged with a set purpose of railwaying the whole world: every prospectus—good, bad, and indifferent; home, foreign, and colonial; past, present, and to come; continental, Indian, and Canadian; to the pole, and to the equator—have found a place in his vast indictment. Of course, it is meant as a joke, and we shall endeavour so to relish it; but, we know there are some quarters, and the *Times* knows its customers better than we do, where the wildest exaggerations are received for truth, and fiction occupies the place of facts. It will be so with all who give credibility to the romance of the Broad Sheet.

LATEST CURRENT PRICES OF METALS.—LONDON, Nov. 25, 1845.

IRON—	£	s.	£	s.	d.	TIN—	£	s.	£	s.	d.
Bar *a*, Wales,....ton	9	0—	9	5	0	Com'n blocks *g*,..cwt.	0	0—	5	5	0
" London, ...	9	15—	10	0	0	" bars, ...	0	0—	5	6	6
Nail rods, London,..	0	0—	10	10	0	Refinded,...........	0	0—	5	10	0
Hoop, (Staf.,) "	0	0—	11	10	0	Straits *h*,............	0	0—	4	13	0
Sheet, " "	0	0—	12	10	0	Banca, ...	0	0—	4	15	0
Bars, " "	11	0—	11	10	0	TIN PLATES—					
Scotch pig *b*, Clyde,.	3	12½—	3	15	0	Ch., IC *i*,........box	1	14—	1	15	0
Rails,.............	0	0—	12	0	0	" IX,...	1	15—	1	16	5
Russian, CCND *c*,...	0	0—	15	10	0	Coke, IC,...........	1	9—	1	10	0
" PSI, ...	0	0—	16	0	0	" IX,...........	1	15—	1	16	0
" Gourieff,...	0	0—	14	10	0	LEAD—Sheet *k*.....ton	20	0—	20	5	0
" Archangel,.	0	0—	13	15	0	Pig, refined, ...	0	0—	21	0	0
Swedish *d*, on the spot	0	0—	12	0	0	" common,......	0	0—	19	0	0
" Steel, fagt.,	0	0—	16	5	0	" Spanish, in bd.,	10	10—	18	15	0
" " kegs *e*,	15	5—	15	10	0	" American,.....	0	0—	17	15	8
COPPER—Tile *f*,......	0	0—	92	0	0	SPELTER—(Cake) *l*,....	21	5—	21	10	9
Tough cake,.......	0	0—	93	0	0	ZINC—(Sheet) *m*, expt.*	0	0—	30	0	0
Best selected,......	0	0—	96	0	0	QUICKSILVER *n*,.......	0	0—	0	4	6
Ordinary sheets..lb.,	0	0—	0	0	10½						
" bottoms,...	0	0—	0	0	11½	REFINED METAL.,..ton	0	0—	7	2	6

a Discount 2½ per cent.
b Net cash.
c Discount 2½ per cent.
d Ditto.
e In kegs, ½ & ¾ in., in bd.
f Discount 3 per cent.
g Ditto 2½ per cent.
h Net cash.
i Discount 3 per cent.
k Ditto 2½ per cent.
l Net cash.
m Discount 1½ per cent.
n Ditto 1¼ per cent.
* For home use it is £32 per ton.

[From our Correspondent.]

Iron.—Welsh and Staffordshire: business limited, but makers maintain their prices. Scotch pig: sales made in Glasgow, on 26th instant, at 72s. 6d.: this market looks dull.

Copper continues firm at quotations, with a good demand.

Tin.—Firm at late advance, and stock of all descriptions low. Sales this week of Straits at 93s., and of Banca at 95s.

Tin Plates.—A fair business doing, and the stock of coke quality inadequate to the demand.

Lead.—Very firm in price.

Spelter.—Rather lower than the quotations of last week's Mining Journal.

GLASGOW PIG IRON TRADE, Nov. 23.

To-day, several thousand tons of pig iron could have been purchased at 75s.; and we understand that one or two small transactions were made at this figure. The principal feature among the trade to-day, was a general reluctance to buy for immediate cash, which shows that dealers do not look forward to any immediate improvement. A parcel of about 1,000 tons might have been had for 72s. 6d., net, which we are not aware has been sold. Looking at the regular supply coming forward, and the general appearance of trade, we cannot but fear a further decline.

COPPER ORES.

Copper Ores for Sale on Thursday next, at Andrew's Hotel, Redruth:

MINES AND PARCELS.—East Wheal Crofty, 747—Wheal Seton, 593—Camborne Vean, 517—Tincroft, 447—Fowey Consols, 322—Dolcoath, 284—South Wheal Basset, 271—Treviskey, 175—West Wheal Jewel, 172—North Roskear, 162—East Pool, 80—Godolphin, 74—Tretoil, 51—Condurrow, 33—Great Work, 31. Total, 3,990 tons.

Copper Ores for Sale on Thursday week, at Andrew's Hotel, Redruth:

MINES AND PARCELS.—Carn Brea Mines, 582—Wheal Prosper, 451—Par Consols, 265—United Hills, 229—Trenow Consols, 191—Wheal Brewer, 153—Wheal Trewavas, 124—Ting Tang Consols, 100—Wheal Providence, 99—Wheal Busy, 77—Wheal Virgin, 72—Carn Perran, 65—West Fowey Consols, 47—Wheal Rodney, 31—East Seton, 28—North Basset, 24—Redruth Consols, 23—Hanson Mines, 22—Treffry's Slag 14—West Grambler, 12—West Wheal Maria, 10—Relistian, 7—Wheal Uny, 2. Total, 2,628 tons.

COPPER ORES,

Sampled Nov. 12, *and Sold at Pearce's Hotel, Truro, Nov.* 27, 1845.

Mines.	Tons.	Price.			Mines.	Tons.	Price.		
United Mines..........	131	£5	15	0	South Caradon,..........	37	£5	12	0
“	124	4	1	6	“	30	11	2	6
“	113	7	19	6	Perran St. George,.......	61	2	6	6
“	108	7	17	6	“	50	2	4	6
“	107	7	11	0	“	43	4	10	6
“	104	5	3	6	“	20	9	2	6
“	91	3	11	6	Bolenna,..............	46	8	14	0
“	82	4	14	0	“	37	4	1	6
Consolidated,...........	134	5	1	0	“	19	8	5	6
“	100	9	17	6	Lanivet Consols,.........	115	4	15	6
“	90	4	5	0	“	114	5	15	6
“	84	4	9	0	“	33	10	7	6
“	83	9	8	0	Grambler and St. Aub.,..	78	6	6	0
“	75	6	5	6	“	61	5	10	6
“	55	4	16	0	“	48	5	9	6
“	51	2	11	6	“	46	6	18	6
“	47	4	4	0	Par Consols,.............	98	5	13	0
“	45	5	13	0	“	65	7	4	0
“	20	7	10	6	“	52	5	8	6
Tresavean,..............	113	4	6	0	Hallenbeagle,...........	59	1	8	6
“	103	3	8	0	“	57	3	4	0
“	90	5	3	6	“	37	3	10	6
“	85	3	16	6	“	31	0	10	6
“	80	2	15	6	“	26	5	17	6
“	68	2	18	0	Trethellan,..............	104	2	12	0
“	59	3	13	0	“	61	3	12	6
“	43	5	19	0	“	31	3	16	6
West Caradon..........	92	7	6	6	Wh. Ellen,..............	86	5	17	6
“	91	7	0	6	“	50	8	3	0
“	89	7	1	0	Wh. Sisters,.............	101	3	3	6
“	74	11	1	0	“	33	3	7	0
“	32	4	1	6	Treleigh Consols,........	78	3	18	0
“	23	10	6	0	“	46	9	12	6
South Caradon,..........	117	5	5	6	Wh. Anna,...............	48	3	15	0
“	84	5	7	6	Williams's East D.,......	26	3	18	0
“	60	6	3	6	Stocker's Ore,...........	26	3	17	0

TOTAL PRODUCE.

Mines.	Tons.	Amount.			Mines.	Tons.	Amount.		
United Mines,.......	860	£5,067	0	0	Par Consols,.	215	£1,303	16	0
Consolidated Mines,..	780	4,648	12	0	Hallenbeagle,........	210	565	18	6
Tresavean,...........	641	2,517	7	6	Trethellan,..........	196	610	2	0
West Caradon,........	401	3,125	12	6	Wh. Ellen,...........	136	912	15	0
South Caradon,.......	328	1,980	2	6	Wheal Sisters,........	134	431	4	6
Perran St. George, } ..	276	1,338	7	0	Treleigh Consols,....	124	746	19	0
Bolenna,....... }					Wh. Anna,...........	48	180	0	0
Lanivert Consols,....	262	1,549	17	0	Williams's East D.,..	26	101	8	0
Grambler & St. Aub.,.	233	1,409	15	6	Stocker's Ore,...... .	2	7	14	0

Average standard, £107 16s. Average produce, 7 5-8. Average price per ton, £5 9s. 6d. Quantity of ore, 4,872 tons, Quantity of fine copper, 370 tons. Amount of money, £26,496 11s. Average standard of last sale, £97 14s. Average production, 9 5-8.

COMPANIES BY WHOM THE ORES WERE PURCHASED.

Mines Royal Company,................................	253	.... £1,532	6	6
English Copper Company,.............................	582½	 3,100	5	3
Vivian & Sons,...	958½	 4,887	9	6
Freeman & Co ,..	605½	 3,038	16	6
Grenfell & Sons..	284	 1,172	11	6
Sims, Willyams, Neville, Druce & Co.,...............	531	 3,223	5	6
Williams, Foster & Co.,..............................	1,657½	 9,541	16	5
Total, tons,......................	**4,872**	**£26,496**	**11**	**0**

A GLANCE AT THE OLD WORLD.

Once more, by the mighty influence of steam, we are placed very near to the Old World. The arrival of the Cunard steamer, at Boston, puts us in possession of the periodicals of the last month. We give the following resumé of their most interesting contents.

SCIENTIFIC.

It has been a matter of complaint that there are certain impurities in commercial sulphate of copper, or blue vitriol. A chemist, named Piesse, asserts that it arises from the treatment of brass and German silver articles, technically called dipping, which consists in plunging them for a short time in a mixture of nitric and sulphuric acids, which removes the coat of oxide from the surface of the metal, and leaves the latter in a clear state, proper for the reception of varnish, or other finishing. In time this dipping liquid becomes in a great manner saturated, and after neutralization with old copper, yields, on evaporation in leaden pans, a large quantity of sulphate of copper in crystals. According to Piesse, not less than one hundred tons of dipping liquid are thus disposed of annually, at Birmingham, by the makers of buttons and other articles.

The crystallized sulphate of copper, so obtained, is often largely contaminated with sulphate of zinc, which may be sometimes seen in the form of slender white needles on the surface of the dark blue crystals, and in some of the applications of this salt may prove injurious.

In the transactions of the Linnean Society of London, we find the death of Dr. Richard Harlan, a native of Philadelphia, noticed in a very interesting manner.

Natural History is becoming a subject of study in the University of Dublin. There should be in all our American Colleges a professorship in this science. It is one of the most fascinating, and humanizing of all mental pursuits. Its range is vast, its results are valuable, and its effect on the mind most salutary and happy.

The Philosophical Magazine, for December, contains some interesting papers on the comets seen since 1844, and one on the diurnal changes of the aqueous portion of the atmosphere and their effects on the barometer, by Mr. Hopkins, of Manchester. Some propositions are laid down which are worth reporting.

1st. The various quantities of aqueous vapour which exist in the atmosphere during the different hours of the day, contribute to the production of the variable atmospheric pressure and the semi-diurnal fluctuations of the barometer. Therefore, at a certain hour of the morning it is at its minimum quantity, from which it increases during the day up to its maximum, after that it declines, and its variable pressure is exerted on the mercury of the barometer, and affects the height of the column. This takes place in a greater or less degree in all latitudes, though to the greatest extent near the equator.

2. The quantity of vapour existing in the atmosphere is ascertained from the dew point, or point of condensation. It thus becomes the measure of the quantity of aqueous vapour in the atmosphere, and of the vapour

pressure; the amount, thus ascertained, being deducted from the whole atmospheric pressure, furnishes the amount of the gaseous pressure.

3. M. Piesse thinks, however, that the dew point is not a correct indicator everywhere, and promises a number of curious facts to sustain this position. The whole article is exceedingly curious and instructive.

We find in the same number an interesting article on the subject of a remarkable difference between the rays of incandescent lime and those emitted by an electric spark, from the pen of Dr. Draper, of this city. The conclusion at which the Doctor arrives, is that the idea that phosphorence is merely the light of electric discharges from particle to particle, seems wholly incompatible with the results obtained by him in his experiments.

As China has become an important country to the commercial world, since the treaty made with it, by the English and ourselves, various facilities for navigating the China seas, are now suggested. Several propellers having gone from the United States to the Celestial Empire, we copy a direction from Mr. Allen, of the Vixen, for small steamers, that seek to pass up from Singapore to Hong Kong, in the strength of a northeast monsoon. It is recommended to pass up on the west side of the Anambas, and then, hauling out to the northeast, pass a few miles to the northward of the Natunas, and continue steering about northeast until the meridian of 110 deg. east is gained, where a north course may be steered, with the fore and aft sails set. When past the Paracels, haul up direct for Hong Kong, and face the monsoon.

Deposites and incrustations in steam boilers have long been a serious injury to them, as well as a great difficulty with engineers. On board the British steamer Echo, Dr. Ritterbandt's patent has been applied with success. The substance employed is chloride of ammonium, a harmless salt. It does not affect the water, communicate to it any unpleasant taste or smell, injure the metal, increase the density of the fluid, nor require any alteration of the present forms of the boilers.

Its action is this. It changes the carbonate of lime into chloride of calcium, which is not deposited by heat, and as the crystallization of other salts, such as the sulphate of lime, depends in a great measure upon contact, the absence of nuclei of solid carbonate prevents in a great measure their formation. In marine boilers, says our authority, this is very evident, for after adding chloride of ammonium, and thus preserving the precipitation of insoluble carbonate of lime, it is almost impossible to obtain crystals of common salt. Blowing off thus becomes unnecessary, and it is asserted that an English steamer, plying between Northampton and Portsmouth, worked twelve days without blowing off, merely by using a small quantity of the material every day, and on the boilers being examined, it was found there was not apparent in them any evidence of even a tendency to deposite. If this be true, and it certainly looks like truth, our own steamers should have the benefit of the discovery.

The great locomotive factory in St. Petersburg, under the direction of Messrs. Eastwick and Harrison, Philadelphia, is attracting great attention among the Russians.

The theory of electro culture, or applying electricity to cultivation, is receiving attention from the learned. It is now maintained that the action of galvanism, (according to Becquerel,) if it be energetic, cannot but be injurious, since it destroys the tissues of a plant, and alters the natural constitution of its juices. The vegetable tissue will not contract like a nerve, and is a bad conductor of electricity. If this acts at all, it must be mechanically, by affecting the capillary attraction, or chemically, by changing the juices, either of which must be hurtful.

This doctrine militates much against the facts elicited by experiment, yet seems to be a sound one.

The Bishop of Derry has for a time laid by his crook ecclesiastical for the crook pastoral. He has invented a churn, which will affect most of our patented notions in that department. He forces air through a glass tube, by means of a pump, nearly to the bottom of a tin vessel, thus forcing the oxygen of the air into an intimate union with the buttery parts of the cream. Eleven gallons of cream, thus treated for one hour and forty-five minutes, produced twenty-six pounds of butter.

The manufacture of hosiery in Great Britain, gives employment to 42,652 persons, and 48,482 frames.

At the latest dates, 26th of July, Sir John Franklin, with his exploring ship, had reached 74 deg. 48 min. north, and 66 deg. 13 min. west longitude. He had made fast to a large iceberg, and had erected upon it a temporary observatory. Officers and crew were in high spirits.

The failure of the potato crop has attracted much attention to the consideration of the causes. Mr. Doubleday has read a paper before the Botanical Society of London, attributing it to a fungus of the genus fusisporium of Lint. Dr. Montague, of Lisle, has discovered in the intercellular spaces of the structure of the potatoe, an entire new fungus, which be proposes to call artrotrogus hydnos sporus. They consider the fungi accidental accompaniments, and the essence of the malady, to atmospheric influences, which a more genial summer will hereafter prevent. It is asserted that where the crop was exposed to the stimulant of the sea-breeze the disease did not manifest itself.

Professor Faraday has announced his discovery that a beam of polarized light is reflected by the electric current, and may be made to rotate between the poles of a magnet. By this, light is shown to be closely allied to electricity.

It is proposed to tunnel the Clyde, a little above Govan.

The diamond mine of Bahia, recently discovered, and of which we gave a short notice on a former occasion, is attracting attention. We learn that it was discovered by a slave in the month of October, 1844, who in the space of twenty days picked up 700 carats of diamonds, and carried them off for sale at a distance. The extraordinary circumstance caused his arrest and imprisonment, but he refused to disclose the locality. He was then suffered to escape, and some intelligent Indians were put upon his trail. They followed him several days, and at last caught him as he was rooting for diamonds, not far from Caxioera, the second city in the province of Bahia. Researches were then made over a large space parallel with the chain of mountains called Sincura, (which have given their name to the mine,) and along the banks of the River Paraguassu, which empties into the Gulf of Bahia.

The first settlement at this American Golconda, was made by convicts and murderers, and their criminal conduct deterred the merchants from visiting the place for the purpose of purchasing.

When the population increased, a system of police was adopted from necessity, and the working of the mines was commenced on an extensive scale. The population had increased in July last to 30,000, and is continually increasing, clustering in seven villages.

The central point of the diamond commerce is Paraguassu. To this place the miners resort on Saturday and Sunday to sell their collections, receiving in exchange, clothes, food, and arms, at large prices.

The diamonds of Paraguassu are of a dun colour, and irregular conformation. Those of Lancoes, one of the villages in the district, are white, or light green, and nearly transparent as they come from the mine; they are octoedrical and most prized, and are found about three feet below the surface, and the prices at which they are sold at Bahia vary from 670 to 1,340 francs per octave of 17½ carats, according to size and water; the carat of Brazil is, however, 7½ per cent. below the French carat, and is, therefore, worth 67 to 134 francs. The English packets of May and June took home £220,000 worth of these diamonds. The gatherings at the mines, during June and July, were 1,450 carats daily. During the ten months they have been worked, the value of the diamonds obtained is estimated to have been £732,000, of which three-fifths went to England, one-fifth to France and Hamburgh, and one-fifth is still on sale at Rio Janeiro.

One singular consequence of this discovery is this: all the lapidaries in the world could not cut one-half of the stones produced by these mines, and a reduction in price is looked for. We are much surprised that no account of them, spreading, as they do, over a space of thirty leagues, has, as yet, proceeded from any of our scientific naval men who have been stationed at Rio. The Brazilian government has not, as yet, interfered in the trade.

Coal has been discovered in the island of Formosa.

Bellanger, a physician of Senlis, asserts that hydrophobia is a disease of the nervous system, developed by the influence of the imagination. He proposes to be bitten himself, to test the truth of his theory.

In consequence of the scarcity of plumbago in England, "lead pencils" are now proposed to be made of an artificial composition.

STEAM.

Our readers are aware that a mania for railway speculations has of late grown up in England and France, to such an extent that a reaction was unavoidable. It has occurred, and large masses of speculators have been ruined. But *steam*, and the application of its useful powers, continue, necessarily, to attract the attention of the learned and the philosophical. There is a great struggle going on in England between the friends of the old system of railways, and the new one, on the atmospheric principle. The latter plan, if it can be made as manageable as the other, has very great and decided advantages in many particulars, but as yet no particular adjustment has been so successful as to ensure its general adoption. The London pictorials come to us full of beautiful drawings and explanations of the various projects of the kind, but we are still left in doubt. The short line at Dublin is successful, but the great experiment is about to be tried by the Croydon Company's Branch to London, a distance of twenty-one miles. Five miles are already opened, and the proprietors allege entire success.

A new work, by Mr. Portarie, a civil engineer, contains a full account of all the new inventions connected with steam and electricity. We trust it will be republished.

LITERARY.

A new system of teaching languages has been invented by a Frenchman, named Pasiglot, who professes to qualify a pupil within six months to read and write French in a correct, grammatical, and elegant manner, and to think and converse in it with equal facility.

Works of merit continue to be written against that entitled Vestiges of the Natural History of the Creation. The dicta of Sir John Herschel have been sufficient to overthrow its theory. He says, there "is no trace of any chaos in the heavens."

The Congress of the Italian men of science adjourned in October. One of the most exciting of the events connected with its adjournment, was a grand expedition to Pompeii, where some new excavations were about to be made, under the direction of the Minister of the Interiour, and the Italian *savans.*

Two thousand people were present. Twenty houses were excavated, and many valuable discoveries were made, which we will allude to under our next head. On Sunday, the Congress separated. The next session, being the eighth, is to be held at Genoa, next year. The chief advantages resulting from the late meeting will be reaped by the agriculturists.

Mr. Speer, a young Englishman, has published a personal narrative of his late ascent to the central peak of the Wetterhorn. It has never before been attempted with success.

Cassini, the French astronomer, is no more. He died recently, at the age of ninety-seven years.

Miss Martineau will publish, on the 1st of January, a new work, called Forest and Game Land Tales.

Captain Marryatt has contributed an American tale to the Book of Beauty, called the Old Brown Coat.

The poet Tieck, now sixty-two years of age, has had a serious attack of apoplexy.

Dickens has published a Christmas book, called a Cricket on the Hearth.

The increase of domestic correspondence in England, under the new postage law, is said to be immense. Two hundred towns are already in possession of a double daily mail out of London, per railway.

Richard Sheridan Knowles, a son of Sheridan Knowles, has produced a comedy at the Haymarket, called the Maiden Aunt. It was not very successful.

A new work, by the author of Harry Lorrequer, is announced, styled the Knight of Craynne.

The new works in press do not seem to be numerous, and the magazines are not as interesting as usual.

FINE ARTS.

There is considerable excitement in Glasgow, on account of the repeated mutilations of the statue of the Duke of Wellington.

The colossal statue of "Bavaria," to which we alluded on a former occasion, was cast at Munich on the 12th of October, at the Royal Foundry, amidst a large concourse of spectators. The chest of the figure is the largest piece of bronze ever cast. The whole weight of metal fused was 40,000 pounds, and forty hours heat was necessary to liquify the mass.

A Miss Orger is pronounced to be the best English lady piano forte player now before the public.

Kaulbach is now styled the great painter of Germany.

The rumour that Mrs. Butler was about to resume the profession of the stage in England, is contradicted by the London Atheneum.

Jenny Lind, of whom we made mention in one of our earliest glances, is studying the Medea of Cherubini, at Berlin.

Balfe's operas have been played at three Vienna theatres on the same evening.

An excellent French company is now playing in London.

Czerny has just published six new symphonies.

The recent exhumations at Pompeii have been partially successful. Among the treasures brought to light, were a fountain, adorned with mosaics, marble tables, bronze vases of great elegance, coins of the reigns of Vespasian and Galba, five statues, and many tripods and amphoræ.

NOTICES OF NEW BOOKS.

Nos. 6 and 7 of Appleton's Literary Miscellany contain Sketches of Modern Literature and eminent Literary Men, (being a Gallery of Literary Portraits,) by George Gilfillan. Reprinted entire from the London edition, in two volumes.

We have been several times told, that these notices of books cannot amount to much, for the books are always puffed. Now, we know not how others may act in this particular; but we are perfectly free to state, that, for ourselves, we desire our readers to understand us as believing fully all we say—whether we are a good judge or not, is quite another matter—but if we know our own motives, they would not permit us to recommend what we did not approve. It is, indeed, a source of great anxiety to all good men, to see our presses teeming with so much trash, as has been (we hope it is diminishing,) disseminated through the stores which abound for the sale of cheap literature. It is, we admit, a good thing to have books at cheap rates—but some of the foreign novels, that run through large editions here, we consider, so far as our morals are concerned, the dearest books that can be found; but a real good book, can hardly ever be dear; it may cost more than we wish to pay for it, but it will more than repay in knowledge what it costs in price. We have been led into this short remark, because we have been taken to task for our literary notices, in public and in private; and now we reply, once for all, that books are the moral food of man, and are as necessary to his moral health, as what he eats is to his physical welfare. We shall, therefore, while this work is published, continue to notice them, honestly, fearlessly, and never praise them but when we think they deserve it.

We have chosen this time and place to make the above remarks, because the book under our notice is much to our taste, and, further; because the author seems to experience a fear lest he may be accused of exaggeration and extravagance, "particularly in his panegyrics of the various characters he has attempted to pourtray"—and he pleads, like ourselves, "that his praise is perfectly sincere." We do not, for a moment, doubt it; and in the credit we give him for the book with which he has favoured us, we are sure we are equally so. It is, as we have said, a book very much to our taste. It gives sketches of Lord Jeffrey, William Godwin, William Hazlett, Robert Hall, Percy Beshe Shelley, Dr. Chalmers, Thomas Carlysle, Thomas De Quincey, John Foster, Professor Wilson, Edward Irwing, and the preachers of the day; Walter Savage Landor, Thomas Campbell, Lord Brougham, Samuel Taylor Coleridge, Ralph Waldo Emerson, William Wordsworth, Robert Pollock, Charles Lamb, Allan Cunningham, and the rural poets; Ebenezer Elliott, John Keats, Thomas Barrington McCauley, Thomas Avid, Robert Southey, and John Gibson Lockhart. We do not mean to endorse all that is written in this book. It is written by an Englishman, and, therefore, when he writes about American authors, he cannot be impartial. But the book, taken altogether, is of deep interest, and we think *must* be extensively read.

The History of Silk, Cotton, Linen, Wool, and other fibrous substances, including observations on Spinning, Dying, and Weaving; also, an account of the Pastoral Life of the Ancients, their Social State and Attainments in the Domestic Arts: with Appendices—on Pliny's Natural History—on the Origin of the Manufacture of Linen and Cotton Paper—on Felting, Netting, &c.—deduced from copious and authentic sources, illustrated by Steel Engravings. New York: HARPER & BROTHERS, 82 Cliff street. 1845.

The first thing we have to record of this very curious book, the examination of which has given us great pleasure, is, the difficulty we feel of rendering to it any thing like justice, in the short account we are permitted to take of it; for it is replete with instruction, on the various subjects upon which it treats. These are, moreover, so numerous, and are drawn forth from such deep research, and from so many sources, that we despair of giving any thing like a correct idea of its valuable contents.

Its first object is to condense, from the oldest and most approved records, the earliest history of the Silkworm, and its cultivation in the East, in China, India, Persia, Greece, and Rome. In the pursuit of this object, history, both sacred and profane, is drawn upon, with a chronological arrangement and system which does great credit to the author, who appears to be quite at home with all the learned languages—for there are quotations in Hebrew, Greek, and Latin, far beyond the ken of the many. Still they are so generally reduced into English as to overcome most of the difficulty which would otherwise arise from that source. After giving 190 pages to Silkworms and Silks, including remarks on its cultivation and manufacture, the author proceeds in a few chapters to treat of other fibrous substances, such as the silken material of the pineapple, mallows, and the spartum, or Spanish broon. Part the Second opens with the origin and earliest history of the Sheep, which naturally leads into the Pastoral Life of the Ancients—the Arabs, the Hebrews, the Greeks, and the Romans—which is embellished with many apt and beautiful quotations from the poets. We have, in Chapter 4th, the very ancient historyof the Goat, with illustrations of the Scripture; then a short Chapter (the 5th) on Beavers' Wool; Chapter 6th, on Camels' Wool and Camels' Hair. Part the Third commences with the great antiquity of the Cotton Manufacture in India, and the unrivalled skill of the Indian weaver. This history of the Cotton Tree, and its different species, with the great variety of manufactures from it, will be found to possess peculiar interest, as it shows how the power of the labour-saving machinery of modern times has triumphed over the cheap manual labour of India. Part Fourth begins with the Ancient History of the Linen Manufacture, first of Flax, and then, in Chapter 2nd, of Hemp, showing that its early use was limited to Thrace, Colchis, and Caira, and, finally, Chapter 3rd treats of the Asbestos.

This work we consider to be one of a very extraordinary character, evincing great research, and affording a vast fund of deeply interesting and very valuable knowledge. Next to the desire of investigating into the state of the arts as they at present exist, the mind naturally recurs to the past, and desires to know when, where, and how, each had its origin, and in what manner and by what gradations it has reached its present state; through what vicissitudes it has passed, and how its ancient compares with its more modern character. To all who may desire to make such a comparison, we commend this masterly production, which, for astute investigation and clever arrangement, may well challenge a comparison with any similar attempt to show to the present generation the vast fund of knowledge in the arts possessed by the ancients.

There is yet another treat to be enjoyed by the classical scholar, in the many apt and well-selected quotations from the Greek and Latin poets, celebrating in glowing colors, and in dulcet strains, the acquirements of the ancients, and adorning their narratives by a style which adds to the value of the knowledge they impart, the charm of their glowing descriptions.

The typographical department of the book is beautifully neat, and the ten engravings, with which it is adorned, add much to its elucidation and beauty.

A Brief Sketch of the Plan and Advantages of an Improved Stone Dry Dock, combined with a Sectional Floating Dry Dock, and forming a permanent stone basin, level bedways, sliding ways, and housed slips, for repairing, launching and laying up in ordinary the Ships in the United States Navy. New York: printed by P. MILLER, No. 102 Broadway, near Wall Street, 1845.

It appears by this pamphlet, that a sectional floating dry dock is a recent invention, for which several patents have been issued—that it has been in operation about five years in the city of New York, having (as it is alleged) acquired the entire confidence of every ship-builder. The pamphlet appears well to sustain the merits of the dock, and it is also supported by recommendations by twelve or fifteen of our most respectable ship-builders, and many of our engineers.

Biographical and Critical Miscellanies, by William H. Prescott, author of the "History of Ferdinand and Isabella," "The Conquest of Mexico," etc., etc. New York: Harper & Brothers, 82 Cliff street. 1845.

We give the most cordial welcome to this work into the stock of choice American books. It belongs to a department of writing that is, of all others, at once the most entertaining and most profitable to the reader; and we are happy to find it undertaken by the accomplished author, who has already done so much to elevate the standard of American literature It was indeed time that something should be done, to call off the attention of our youth from the foreign trash of light-reading, with which our presses have been teeming, to something more substantial; and the work before us is one that cannot fail to be productive of great good in this respect. With how much more zest can we appreciate a book, or the character of an author, after a knowledge of the effects produced by them upon such a mind as that of Mr. Prescott. Although we were personally well acquainted with Charles Brocton Brown, having been one of his pupils, the work before us has shed a new light upon his character, and made us feel a pride in the recollection of our intimate association with one to whom such high praise, as an author and a citizen, is here awarded. Sir Walter Scott, too—we did not think any thing could add to the interest we have always felt in the great "Wizard of the North," and yet we feel an almost irresistible desire again to revel in his delightful and rich productions, after reading the illustrations given of Sir Walter and some of his works by Mr. Prescott. It is not exactly that he has told us any thing new, but that he has stirred up within us all the pleasing sensations with which we originally devoured the writings of that inimitable man—for there is as much to rivet the attention,

"To raise the genius and to mend the heart,"

in the extraordinary and loveable (if we may use the term) character of Sir Walter, as in the perusal of the emanations from the rich stores of his fertile mind. "Chateaubriand," too, is a name with which we have always associated every thing that is high and lofty in thought, and benevolent in feeling—and yet we find, by a perusal of Mr. Prescott's review of "Chateaubriand's English Literature," that he had his imperfections; among which his hostility to the Reformation, arising from an overweening attachment to the Church of Rome, lays him liable to the charge of a want of a full share of pure Christian feeling. The short sketch our author has given of the Continental translations of the respective English poets, is very instructive. The other works to which these Miscellanies refer, are Bancroft's United States, Madame Calderon's Life in Mexico, Moliere, Italian Narrative Poetry, Poetry and Romance of the Italians, Scotch Song, and Da Ponte's Observations—from the reading of all which, much general information and literary knowledge will be derived.

Montezuma, the Last of the Aztecs, a Romance, by Edward Maturin, in two volumes. New York: Paine & Burgess, 62 John street. 1845.

No part of the early history, either of the Northern or Southern portion of the New World, has been rendered more famous than the Conquest of Mexico, and no names have filled a larger space in connexion with this history, than Cortez and the unfortunate Montezuma. A priest, as well as a sovereign, he was almost worshipped by his people. We have neither time nor space, to indulge in either the sad reality, or the romance with which the author of the book before us invests the downfall of "the last of the Aztecs," and can, therefore, only refer the reader to the book itself; and if he be one, fond of the romantic, we give him the following quotation from the book, by which he may judge of the author's style. Its story we have already intimated—of course, the master passion is introduced, there is a tale of love, a sweet, fair lady, and a dwarf. But to our quotation:

"'Malenché,' he said, 'for such was thy name in bondage, and such I find it here!'

"The girl started, as starts the wanderer when strains of his own dear land, as voices reminding him of his home and boyhood, awaken recollections of both within. Such is the charm of sounds—like a talisman, it summons from the past, the absent, the forgotten—revives those tones, that sweet worship of the heart, around the hearth of its affections and the altar of its idols—rekindles those smiles which glow like beacons amid the chill and darkness of a strange land, and peoples its solitudes with the forms of those loved ones, which hover between the grave and the heart. Such was the voice of Tenpautli to the ear of Malenché."

Rambles by Land and Water, or Notes of Travel in Cuba and Mexico, including a Canoe Voyage up the river Panuco, and Researches among the Ruins of Tamaulipas, etc. By B. M. Norman, author of Rambles in Yucatan, etc. New York: published by PAINE & BURGESS. New Orleans: by B. M. NORMAN. 1845.

These Rambles, we are told by the author's preface, have for their object "no higher rank than that of a humble offering to the Ethnological studies of our country." With this in view, the author went by way of Havana, and several other towns in the Island of Cuba, to Vera Cruz, and thence to Tampico, and making the latter place a kind of head-quarters, pursued his researches among the ancient and very curious ruins with which its neighbourhood appears to abound. But though these researches constituted the chief object he had in view, he has given us, in his four first chapters, no uninteresting account of his travels; in which he has noted most of what he saw and felt. His description of Havana, with its buildings, theatre, fish market, cathedral, paintings, shrines, the tomb of Columbus, &c., with enthusiastic encomiums upon the beauty of the country in Cuba, its verdure and romantic situations, and the salubrity of the climate, are very pleasantly given, and we felt quite a gratification in accompanying him, as he went along, on his "land and water excursion."

He gives us a very good account of the ruins he visited, of the relics he found, and closes his book with an account of Mexico, a short history of Santa Anna, and the reflections resulting from his explorations—arriving at the conclusion, which we think it best to give in his own words, from page 203 of his book, which is as follows:

"I am free to acknowledge, then, that the impression formed in my first 'Rambles' among the ruined cities of Yucatan have been fully confirmed by what I have now been permitted to see in Mexico. I am compelled, in view of all the facts and analogies which they present, to assign those ruins, and the people who constructed them, to a very remote antiquity. They are the work of a people who have long since passed away, and not of the races, or the progenitors of the races, who inhabited the country at the epoch of the discovery."

The book is well printed, on good paper, and has many wood cuts and engravings, which exhibit the curious relics he saw, and the locations he visited.

The Artist, Merchant, and Statesman, of the age of the Medici and of our own times, in two volumes, by C. Edwards Lester, United States Consul at Genoa, author of the Glory and Shame of England—The Condition and Fate of England—translator of Machiavelli, Alfieri, etc.—Honorary Member of the Ateneo Italiano at Florence, etc.

We promised, in the short notice we took of the first volume of this work, carefully to examine and report on that part of it which relates to the American Consular system, which time did not permit in season for our last number. In now redeeming that promise, we can honestly and truly say we most cordially approve of every word it contains. Nor do we deem it improper further to state, that we speak advisedly, and on a subject with which we are familiar, from an extended intercourse abroad, in which the defects of our present Consular system have often been made most conspicuous. Mr. Lester has treated the subject with great candour and judgement, and we should be rejoiced to see it taken up by the whole press of the country—for, like Mr. L., we despair of inducing Congress to act upon it, until thereunto driven by an irresisitble clamour. Our interests suffer daily for want of reform in this important branch of our foreign relations. Our Consuls often receive unmerited censure for not doing impossibilities, both from the government and from our citizens travelling abroad—and, worse than all, our country is degraded below that of the most petty States, from the shameful manner in which Congress neglects the repeated applications that are made for a reform in our Consular system. *That member* of either House who shall take up this matter, and adopt measures to perfect such a system as we ought to have, will deserve, and will certainly receive, the cordial thanks of every portion of his fellow-citizens engaged in our foreign commerce, or in anywise brought into contact with our Consuls.

We have carefully read, and with great pleasure, the second volume of this work, containing the genealogy of the Vespucci, passages from the Life of Michael Angelo, Gallileo, the Congress of Literary Men, the works of Botta, Social Life and National Spirit of America, &c., &c.—and feel very much indebted to Mr. Lester for the amusement and instruction it has afforded us; and we do not doubt this will be the feeling with which his countrymen generally will rise from its perusal

The Life of Mozart, including his Correspondence, by Edward Holmes, author of a Ramble among the Musicians of Germany. New York: Harper & Brothers, Cliff street. 1845.

Among the Sciences to which human life is indebted for a charm more exalted than any other, Music stands evidently unrivalled. Whether it be of joyful sounds to elevate the spirits to hilarity and glee, or by "dulcet and harmonious" breathings to sooth and calm the tumults of the soul—whether its power be invoked to rouse the warriour to deeds of daring and renown, or by its deep and solemn tones to awaken the holier sensations of our nature, and heigthen the ecstacy of devotion,

> There is in souls a sympathy with sounds,
> And as the mind is pitched, the ear is pleased;
> With melting airs, or martial—brisk, or grave;
> Some chord, in unison with what we hear,
> Is touched within us, and the heart replies.

The man, therefore, who is universally acknowledged to be a great master of such an art, which, like poetry, has been called "divine," is entitled to high consideration; nor can it prove otherwise than deeply interesting to know his history. Such a man, undoubtedly, was Mozart, of whom this volume contains a biography from his earliest years. The maxim is "Poeta nascitur non fit," but however this may be, it would seem the maxim does not stop here. Mozart may well be said to have been born a musician; for he became a composer in his fifth year—from which time, until his death, he continued to delight all Europe, if not the world, with the productions of his unrivalled genius.

In every branch of this intricate science, from the simple "sonata" to the most difficult opera, a constant stream of harmony was kept in flow from his productive pen. From 1764, when he was yet a boy of seven years of age, to 1768, he composed 32 pieces of music. From 1788 to 1791, 36 pieces. There were, also, 36 more regular pieces of music, besides 86 fragments, as they are called, found among his papers. He died in 1791, at the age of 35 years and 10 months.

We cannot better show the interest this volume must impart, than by the following remark from his biographer:

"The attempt to determine his exact position among the greatest composers would fruitless, as opinions must always be expected to differ upon questions of taste and sensibility; but of his title to the highest honours which posterity can award, there cannot be a doubt. His works remain 'the starry-pointed pyramid' of one who excelled in every species of composition—from the impassioned elevation of the tragic opera, to the familiar melody of the birth-day song; nor will they cease to command universal admiration while music retains its power as the exponent of sentiment and passion."

The Philosophy of Mystery, by Walter Cooper Dendy, Fellow and Honorary Librarian of the Medical Society of London, Senior Surgeon of the Royal Infirmary for Children, etc., etc. New York: Harper & Brothers, Cliff street. 1845.

The lovers of the marvellous will be much pleased with a perusal of this work, which, in the familiar style of dialogue, will unfold to them the nature and motives of ghosts, the prophecy and illusion of spectres, phantasy in all its various forms—from mental association, from cerebral excitement, from cerebral congestion, from poetic excitement, and from sympathy with the brain. Mysterious forms and signs, analyses and classifications of spectral illusions, illustrations of mysterious sounds, fairy mythology, demonology, &c. &c.

The nature of the soul and mind, and of sleep; the sublimity and the imperfection of dreaming; prophecy, and moral and material causes of dreaming; intense impression and memory, etc. etc.; incubus or nightmare, somniloquence, somnambulism, imitative monomania, revery, abstraction of intellect, somnolency, trance, catalepsy, premature interment, resucitation, transmigration, analyses of trance, mesmerism and sibylline influence, etc. etc.

In the form of dialogue, as we have said, all these very curious and intricate subjects are examined and discussed. History, ancient and modern, and many other sources, are resorted to for the most extraordinary examples in every case as it comes up, and, under the name of Evelyn, one of the parties, who appears to be an eminent physician, undertakes to explain the moral and physical causes which produce the wonderful phenomena that are related—sometimes by himself, and at others by his three companions, one of whom is a young lady, called Ida. We have seldom met with a larger collection of curious cases, than are here brought together to excite the astonishment and wonder of the reader, nor have we met with more satisfactory explanations of their causes. Besides the gratification afforded to the curious, in these Mysteries, this work is calculated to do much good, in removing from the minds of the credulous the false fears and alarms, often productive of much mischief.

Wiley & Putnam's Library of Choice Reading, No. 38. *The Book of Christmas, by Thomas K. Hervey.*

This is a good book, and well timed. It goes fully into the subject of "the Christmas season," giving an account of the festival, in all its bearings upon human sensibilities; and surely they are many—pleasing—salutary—from the delighted child, rejoicing in the Christmas present, to the aged grandsire, who is permitted to witness again the pleasing scenes of this day, which call up fresh to his recollections, the many, many times he has witnessed them; all is rejoicing, throughout every household, save where some of the distresses to which flesh is an inevitable heir, have intruded—but even there, Christmas may shed its higher and holier influences, and calm the perturbed spirit! View it in whatever light we may, Christmas is, of all the holidays, the greatest and best; and such a book, as the one under notice, telling all about it, from its earliest institution—the manner in which it has been celebrated at different periods—the feelings it excites—the joys and consolations it imparts—is, as we have said, a good book, and its publication is well timed.

A Practical Treatise on a Healthy Skin, with Rules for the Medical and Domestic Treatment of Cutaneous Diseases, by Erasmus Wilson, F.R.S., Consulting Surgeon of the St. Pancreas Infirmary, and Lecturer on Anatomy and Physiology, in Middlesex Hospital, author of the "Anatomists' Vade Mecum," etc. Illustrated with six steel engravings. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 200 Broadway. Philadelphia: Geo. S. Appleton, 148 Chesnut street. 1846.

We always notice books of this kind with great pleasure; for, although not being of *the profession*, and therefore not competent to judge of their merit, we have ever felt, and shall always feel, that such publications are very useful; for, entirely separate and apart from medical treatment, they diffuse much valuable knowledge, of the human system—and, as in the case of the one under notice, of the domestic treatment. On both these particulars, much of the benefit to be derived from medicine is dependent. Moreover, books treating of the diseases to which the human system is subjected, not seldom show us how we may avoid them In fine, we cannot know too much of pathology, and, the more we are informed upon it, the more do we learn the necessity of attention to diet, cleanliness, and the importance of early and strict attention to the preservation of health, that greatest of all earthy blessings.

Chances and Changes, or Life as it is, illustrated by the History of a Straw Hat: by Charles Burdett, A. M., author of "Never too late," "The Elliott Family," "Trials and Triumphs," "The Adopted Child," "Emma, or the Lost Found," etc. etc. New York: D. Appleton & Co., Broadway. Philadelphia: Geo. S. Appleton, 148 Chesnut street. Cincinnati: Derby, Bradley & Co., 113 Main street. 1846.

These Chances and Changes, are assigned to certain personages and families in the city of New York. The story has not much incident, being but a medium of conveying, in a plain, unaffected style, some high moral and religious instruction. Still, though a very simple story, it may do much good; for it proves the efficacy of patience, humility, and religion, under every trial, and shows the injustice practiced towards a very numerous and useful class of society, who, as milliners and mantua-makers, are very hardly dealt with, and very badly paid.

Stable Talk and Table Talk, or Spectacles for Young Sportsmen, by Harry Hiover. Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard. 1845. For sale by Wiley & Putnam, New York.

This is not a regular treatise, but is pretty much the same thing, under various titles. The writer appears to be completely up to every part of the subject of hunting and horse-racing, both of which, he contends, can be practiced without any departure from "the gentleman." We have no knowledge on these subjects, but the book before us appears to be full of it. We take Harry Hiover to be a real English sportsman, who, under many proverbial maxims of the turf, and other trite sayings, treats on almost all the subjects connected with the horse, whether for the saddle, the coach, the chase, or the turf—how to buy and to sell horses—disclosing many of the tricks of the trade, and giving much counsel to all who wish information upon such subjects.

The Practical Astronomer, comprising illustrations of light and colours, practical descriptions of all, kinds of telescopes, the use of equatorial transit circular and other astronomical instruments—A particular account of the Earl of Ross's large telescope, and other topics connected with Astronomy, by Thomas Dick LL. D., author of the "Christian Philosopher," "Celestial Scenery," "the Sidereal Heavens," &c., &c., illustrated with one hundred engravings. New York: Harper & Brothers, 82 Cliff street. 1846

The name of Dr. Dick to any work on Astronomy, is sufficient to give it the stamp of science and the impress of interest. It is not, therefore, for us to make a fruitless attempt to "gild fine gold," still we may be permitted to notify inquiring minds of the nature of this beautiful illustration of the subjects upon which it treats. And first of the nature and properties of light, of its refraction and reflection, of the colours of light, of the colours of natural objects, phenomenon of the rainbow, of the utility and beauty of colours—these may be recommended as conveying, in a clear and comprehensive style, the philosophy of the many and varied modifications of light, so as to leave impressions the most pleasing, and lessons the most instructive.

Part Second is on telescopes, giving an account of their first invention and uses, of the camera-obscura, and daguerreotype and practical rules for photogenic drawing. The optical angle is then explained, and also the acromatic telescope; then the reflecting telescope—the manner of using and choosing telescopes, with their utility—micrometers and equatoriol telescopes, and of observations with the latter on the fixed stars and planets, in the daytime, with the utility of such observations. The quadrant and the astronomical circle are then described, the various opinions which were originally formed of Saturn's rings, and, finally, a description of Henderson's Planetarium, and the Earl of Ross's telescope, the largest and most magnificent instrument that ever was made.

Let not the inquisitive fear that the intricacies of science, or the technicalities of language, will obstruct the pleasure they will derive from the study of this book: for the clearness of the author's style, and the elucidation of the one hundred engravings, render it within the scope and comprehension of every intelligent student.

Marston, or the Memoirs of a Statesman Philadelphia: Lea & Blanchard. For G. B. Zeiber & Co., Philadelphia; Burgess & Stringer, New York; Redding & Co., State street, Boston; N. Hickman & W. Taylor, Baltimore; Robinson & Jones, Cincinnati; and all Booksellers and News Agents in the United States. 1845. Complete, in two parts.

The reputation of this work is so well established it needs no praise from us, and yet we cannot avoid adding ours, to the general voice in its favour, and saying these few words, setting forth our views of the intense interest it excites in the variety of its character and incidents, and of the nervous style in which it is written.

Hand-Book of Young Artists and Amateurs in Oil Painting, being chiefly a condensed compilation from the celebrated manual of Bouvier, with additional matter selected from the labours of Merimer, and other distinguished Continental writers in the art. In seven parts.

1st. Materials and implements of the art. 2d. Curious matter holding a middle place between the materials and practice. 3d. The first palettes, or dead covering. 4th. The second or finishing palette. 5th. The painting of draperies. 6th. Landscape painting. 7th. The varnishing, cleaning, repairing, and lining of pictures. The whole adapted, by the method of its arrangement and the completeness of its detail, as well for a text-book in academies of both sexes, as for self-instruction. To which is appended, "A New Explanation and Critical Vocabulary."

In the absence of any power to judge of the merit of this treatise, we can only give its copious title, as the promise of much useful information, and speak of it as a book very handsome in every department of its typographical appearancea—beautiful type, fine paper, clear text, and a very handsome cover. If that part of the work of which we profess to be ignorant, is as well executed as are those externals with which we are familiar, it will be a valuable acquisition to those who would perfect themselves in the art of which it treats.

The Manual of Matrimony and Connubial Companion, gathered together for the safety of the single, and the weal of the wedded, by a Bachelor. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 200 Broadway. Philadelphia: Geo. S. Appleton, 148 Chesnut st.

A very neat and pretty miniature publication of three sermons on matrimony; one never before published, and Jeremy Taylor's famous pair of sermons on the Marriage Ring. All three of these sermons are replete with excellent counsel, which, if duly followed, will add much to the happiness of married life.

An Address delivered before the Boston Mercantile Library Association, on t casion of their twenty-fifth anniversary, October 15th, by Robert C. Wint. Boston: press of T. Marvin, 24 Congress street. 1845.

We have read this Address, with much gratification, both because of its intrinsic mer and of the account it gives us of the flourishing state of the association before which was pronounced, which it tells us numbers eight hundred members: believing, as do, that nothing more strongly marks the advances we are making in the general gress of the age, than such a united effort for the dissemination of knowledge.

The account the orator gives us of the humble origin of the city of Boston, trasted with its present flourishing condition, forcibly illustrates the enterprise of American character, and the power given to it by our republican institutions. I may those who contributed so largely to their establishment enjoy in plenitude t glorious fruits; and they will enjoy them, as Mr. Winthrop justly says, ', as long as government shall not repudiate one of its great original debts, by being false to the tection of its own industry." It is a source of deep regret to us that we cannot quo largely from this address, for it is full of practical good sense, adorned with apt clas cal allusions, to enforce the value of study for the improvement of the mind, and industry to aply it to useful purposes. While Boston has such well sustained institution to incite the young and aspiring to honourable enterprise, and they follow such wi counsels as the author of this address has given them, there will be a full promise, tha neither will her progress be retarded, nor the power nobly to sustain it, be diminished.

The Illustrated History of Palestine, from the patriarchal age to the present time: by John Kitto, editor of the Pictorial Bible, the Cyclopedia of Biblical Literature, etc., etc. New York; published by Wm. H. Graham, Tribune buildings, 1845.

This history of the Holy Land, commences with the biblical account of the Deluge, the confusion of tongues, the call of Abraham, &c., and continues the history of the Jews, as recorded in Scripture, until Nehemiah, who held the office of royal cup-bearer to Artaxexes, obtained permission to build the walls of Jerusalem; from which tim Judea ceased to form a distinct government, but was annexed to the Satrapy of Syria, although the government was administered by the high Priests, under the authority the Satraps. The narrative of the Manual is then continned from this time, about 41 B. C., according to the records of profane history, down to the present Pacha of Egypt, Mehemet Ali, giving, as it proceeds, an account of remarkable events and personages, in a succinct manner; and it is well calculated to refresh the memory, or to create a desire in the uninformed who may read it, to know more of a history so imposing and of such deep moment.

The Wandering Jew, superbly illustrated by the most eminent artists of Paris; new and elegant translation. Harper & Brothers, New York; to be complete in about 18 numbers.

We have received as far as No. 7 of this magnificent work, of which we have before given our favourable opinion, so that on this occasion it is only necessary, to reiterate it, for every number presents us with a confirmation of the assertion, that "the engravings are by the most eminent artists," since nothing can exceed their adaptation to the characters intended to be portrayed, nor the power with which they are delineated.

Graham's American Monthly Magazine of Literature and Art, for January, 1845. George R. Graham, *Editor. Termes three dollars a year, invariably in advance.* Philadelphia: George R. Graham, 88 Chesnut street. New York: William H. Graham, Tribune Buildings.

This is a beautiful number of this beautiful monthly. The engravings are executed in the best style, and the subjects well chosen—"The Young Cavalier," and "Washington and Montgomery." The text contains fifteen original papers, from James Russell Lowell, H. W. Herbert, Alfred B. Street, Wm. H. C. Hosmer, N. C. Brooks, A. M., T. H. Chivers, M. D., G. R. Graham, Mrs. Ann S. Stephens, Fanny Forrester, Mrs. Caroline A. Butler, Mrs. M. N. McDonald, Miss E. M. Sidney, Francis J. Grund, E. P. Whipple, T. B. Read, E. J. Eames, and Charles J. Peterson. Fifteen original pieces, from the above well known contributors, offer no small treat to the reader.

Statistics of the Woollen Manufactures of the United States, by the proprietor of the Condensing Cards. New York: William H. Graham, Tribune buildings, 1845.

This is a very useful book, giving the names of upwards of eleven hundred firms, now engaged in the manufacture of woollens of various descriptions, with the number of the Condensing Cards in use by each, the kind of goods manufactured, with much other practical information. Apart from the satisfaction it gives to the general inquirer into such subjects, it must prove highly valuable to all those, who either seek employment in such establishments, or are otherwise concerned to know their location and extent.

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COMMERCIAL HISTORY OF PORTUGAL,

AND PARTICULARS OF HER COMMERCE WITH THE UNITED STATES.

OF all the countries of the known world, we know of none whose commercial history is so remarkable as that of Portugal; none, certainly, that ever reached to such a height and fell to such a depth of ruin; none affording such an example, such a warning, to all other nations.

One of the greatest, if not the greatest of commercial nations, in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, pushing her conquests in the east and the west; her power and influence went on increasing abroad, while her home industry is represented as having been very respectable, until in the eighteenth century she was drawn in to make what was called a treaty of reciprocity with England—the famous Methuen treaty, the destructive effect of which is justly described by the quotation we shall give in the sequel from the Abbé Raynal.

But we must not anticipate. We have endeavoured, in the account given, to show her rise from nothing—the immensity of her former wealth, power, and foreign possessions, and her decline, until her name has become a "by-word" of folly among the nations.

The woful situation into which she was plunged by the wiles of England, we commend to the particular attention of the people of the United States, for it arose from precisely the same folly which appears now to obtain in the councils of the executive at Washington; and which, if followed, cannot fail to produce precisely the effect upon this country that it caused to Portugal. She gave up her home industry in an evil hour, and with it her prosperity, her power, and her influence as a commercial nation, and reduced her population to ruin and beggary.

But, as we have said, we must not anticipate, and therefore we commence the history of this ill-fated country, which up to the year 1139 had no existence as a separate country or kingdom, but was a poor and obscure part of Spain.

Its first king, Alphonso, assumed that title in this year—Alphonso the Sixth, King of Castile and Leon, having bestowed that country upon Henry, the father of Alphonso First of Portugal, for his assistance against the Moors. His title, however, was only that of Count, and was held tributary to the King of Castile and Leon. The German authors say that Alphonso the First, of Portugal, was indebted for the conquest of Lisbon to an army composed of the inhabitants of Bremen, who had enlisted under Conrad the Third, for attacking the Saracens by sea, who landed in Gallicia, marched upon Lisbon, and drove the Moors out of that city; from which time it became the capital of the kingdom of Portugal, and the residence of Alphonso, its first king. It is somewhat remarkable, what is stated in the Federa, that in the year 1325 King Edward the Second, of England, wrote a letter to the King of Portugal, asking of him to grant his protection to an English ship to go thither with a cargo for sale, and intending to load corn and other provisions for the dutchy of Gascony, then an English possession; from which Anderson remarks, that "it is probable English ships did not in those days very usually trade to Portugal, which occasioned King Edward to make this request; and (Anderson continues) we may here add, as observed elsewhere, that not only Portugal and Spain, but France also, produced more corn and less wine than in modern times." In 1371 the Portuguese had four ships seized in the ports of Dartmouth and Falmouth, in England, which were afterwards liberated, and commerce restored between England and Portugal.

In 1410 the Portuguese began to turn their attention to the coast of Africa, and ships were fitted out at Lisbon, which proceeded as far as Cape Bagador, in about 24 degrees of north latitude, where, having encountered a heavy storm, they did not attempt to proceed further. Yet another attempt was soon made, and ended in the discovery of the island of Porto Santo, near the island of Madeira, which latter place they reached on a third attempt—though that island is said to have been discovered in 1344, by one Macham, an Englishman. In 1412 King Henry Fourth, of England, complained to King John, of Portugal, of the seizure of the ship Thomas, of London, of 200 tons burthen. The lading was taken out at Lisbon, and was oil, wax, and sundry other wares, and it was valued at six thousand gold crowns. No mention being made in the Federa, from whence the account is taken, of any wines, would seem to favor the idea that at this time none were exported from Portugal.

In 1418 a Portuguese settlement was made in the island of Madeira, and in the following year they planted the island with sugar cane from Sicily, and also with vines from Candia, in the Mediterranean, both of which succeeded very well. Yet, although this was the first sugar plantation in the western world, it is related that the sugar cane was thence transplanted to the Brazils, where it succeeded so much better that the Portuguese turned all their sugar plantations in Madeira into vineyards.

Hackluyt, in the first volume of his Voyages, (written in 1430,) thus speaks of Portugal: "Portugal is our friend; it sends much merchandise into England, and our people resort thither for trade; they have wines, osey, wax, grain, figs, raisins, dates, honey, cordovan leather, hides, &c., all of which are carried in great quantities to Flanders, (which our author justly terms the staple at that time for all Christendom;) and as Portugal is deemed changeable, she is in our power whilst we are masters of the narrow seas."

In the year 1440 or 1441, the Portuguese pushed their discoveries on the west coast of Africa as far south as Cape Blanco, where they found gold dust; and in 1446 and 1447, as far as Rio Grande. About this time the Azores, or Western Isles, were discovered, (the exact year not known,) by a Flemish trader, who, in a voyage to Lisbon, was driven so far westward as to see them; this he reported on his arrival, and it is affirmed that Prince Henry himself went immediately and took possession of them. Accounts vary as to the exact time of this act, from 1449 to 1481; and somewhere about the same time they discovered the Cape de Verde islands.

It would appear that the Portuguese were the only nation of Europe, at that early day, intent upon nautical enterprizes, for they continued cruising on the coast of Western Africa, as far south as the Cape of Good Hope, until in 1497 Vasco de Garno passed it, and made the first European maritime voyage to India.

In the year 1500 Emanuel, King of Portugal, sent out thirteen ships, under the command of Alvarez de Cabral, to take possession of Paria, in South America, which had been discovered a short time before, by Americus Vespucius. Having nearly reached the coast, a violent storm drove Cabral on the coast of Brazil, then for the first time discovered; upon which he sent home word to the King of this discovery, by one of his ships. This fleet left some Portuguese to hold possession of the newly discovered territory, and proceeded eastward to the east coast of Africa, and took possession of Sofalo, with only six ships, having lost the remainder in a severe gale off the Cape of Good Hope. They then made a settlement on the island of Mosambique, on that coast, where they built a fort. From thence Cabral proceeded to Calicut, and having made treaties with the King of Cochin and Canamor, he returned home to Lisbon, laden with the rich merchandise of those countries.

In 1501 three Portuguese ships were sent out to the East Indies; in their way they discovered the island of Ascension, eight degrees south of the line, and other islands on the south coast of Africa, and on their return they also discovered the island of St. Helena, in south latitude sixteen, now in possession of the English East India Company, and rendered famous as the residence of Napoleon in his exile. It is situated near the mid-way between Africa and America, at the distance of about 1800 miles northwest of the Cape of Good Hope. The following year the Portuguese built a fort at Cochin, subdued the King of Mombaza and others in eastern Africa, and sent ships to cruise against the Moors at the entrance of the Black Sea. In short, they pushed their conquests and commerce to such an extent that a Vice Royalty was established there; and afterwards, under the famous General Alburquerque, they became masters of Ormus, in the Persian Gulf; of Goa and many other ports on the coast of Coromandel, and also the coasts of the island of Ceylon, where only the true cinnamon is produced. They also possessed themselves of the Molacca Promontory; and, to crown their conquests, subdued the famous Moluccas, or Spice islands. Thus was then, the now small, power of Portugal at its height, having a complete monopoly of the commerce of India. In a very few years afterwards she conquered the island of Ceylon, seized the isle of Ormus, and made Goa, on the Malabar coast, the metropolis of her eastern empire.

In 1517 they sent an ambassador to China, who travelled over land from Canton to Pekin. In 1542 the Portuguese discovered Japan, and in 1550 they obtained a good footing there.

In 1580 King Philip Second, of Spain, found means to unite Portugal to Spain, and it so remained until 1640, when it shook off the Spanish yoke, through the means of John, Duke of Braganza, who assumed the title of King John Fourth.

According to Gemelli, it was on or about the year 1586 that the Portuguese acquired the possession of the island of Macao, in China. That island was at this period inhabited by robbers, called by the Chinese *Ladrones*, who greatly annoyed the trade of Canton, the island of Macao being situate near the mouth of Canton river. The island was ceded to them upon the contract that they were to dispossess these robbers and otherwise aid in the defence of the commerce of Canton. At one time Macao was a very considerable place. In 1699 it is said to have contained five thousand Portuguese, who, however, have now there but a small population and a very small number of troops—the Chinese having a joint possession with them.

About this period the *Dutch* made their first important attempts at establishing colonies in India; and historians agree that from that moment the Portuguese power there began to decline, the two nations being engaged in a furious war, both in Europe and Asia, and also in Brazil.

In 1603 the Dutch East India Company's ships took several valuable Portuguese vessels, and drove the Portuguese from Amboyna and Tidore, in the Moluccas. In the year 1611 the Portuguese had a fleet in the Indian seas of two hundred and forty sail of merchant ships, and the following is a list of their possessions about this period, taken from Anderson:

1st. On the northeast coast of Africa they had a trade on the river Quame, in 21 deg. 50 min. south latitude, for gold, ivory, ambergris and slaves, and at Mosambique for the like.

2d. At Mombaza for the same, in exchange for Guzarat commodities.

3d. At Mogadore for the same, and for several sorts of drugs; and from all those places they drove a trade to Cambaya, to the Red Sea, and many other parts.

In the Gulf of Persia, at Orma, they make a profitable trade to Persia, Arabia and India; bringing pearls from Balsora, and with them and other Persian commodities trading to Diu, and Goa, in India.

In Arabia they are complete masters, and have a strong fort, though no great trade; but here they gave passes for the going up and down of their ships.

At Diul, near the mouth of the Indus, and at Diu, in Guzarat, they have many strong castles, as also at Daman. Serra de Baizon, a little south of Daman, they are possessed of; and between it and Chaul, the three ports of Gazien, Banda and Maia. At Daboul they have a factory, but no fort. Goa is their Indian metropolis, the seat of their Viceroy and of all the gallantry of the nation, and the general rendezvous of all their forces. Goa has also a large share of trade. In short, here are the strong sinews which hold together their eastern empire. At Onor and Barcelor they have forts, and trade for pepper, ginger and drugs. They have also Mangaler and Cananor well fortified and traded to; and though they are quite shut out of Calicut, and are besieged at Cranganor, yet they have the strong city and castle of Cochin, with a considerable trade. They have Coulan, Quelaon and Taccatra, well fortified, and mostly filled with Portuguese, both laity and clergy. On the great isle of Ceylon the ports and forts of Punta de Galla and Columbo are wholly theirs, and they are daily increasing their dominion in the island, where they have a great trade for cinnamon and drugs. Turning Cape Cormorin, and going up the other side of the continent, at Negapatam they have a factory, and Maliapore, a walled city, is their own. Up toward the Ganges they have several small residences and good factories, and everywhere some advantage or other. In the kingdom of Bengal they are possessed of a good town. In Pega they have a factory, and also at Aracan and upon the river Martaban. At Junsuloa they have a great factory, from whence they lade vast quantities of block tin. At Malacca they are masters of the city and castle, both very strong, and are masters of most of the trade of the adjoining countries. At Macao, an island on the coast of China near the mouth of the Canton river, they have a city and castle, and a great trade with the Chinese. In Japan they have no fort nor castle, but a factory, the emperor of Japan keeping them at arm's length.

The historian closes this account of their immense former possessions in India with the following remark: "This abridged account of that nation's dominions and trade in India, compared with what little they have left there in our time, will show their shameful sloth and negligence in afterwards suffering the Hollanders and the Indian princes gradually to deprive them of almost all the before mentioned possessions and of all their commerce; so that they have now little more remaining to demonstrate their former grandeur in India; but the almost universality of the Portuguese language along those coasts, to this day, furnishes an interesting lesson for all other nations." In this we fully concur, and have gone into this detailed account of their great possessions and prosperity, to show how little dependence is to be placed upon trade resulting from the labour of others—having already shown, in the history we gave of the commerce of Holland, that even the industry and economy for which the Hollanders up to the present moment have been justly renowned, cannot last, if from natural or other causes there is not a solid basis for it in some great staple production, and a full and profitable employment for the whole population. But our business at present is with Portugal, and so we resume our narrative of her course, the result of which will be fully manifest when we reach her present degraded state among the nations of the earth.

The year 1640 was a memorable year for the Portuguese, for it was then that John, Duke of Braganza, found means to drive out the Spaniards and to ascend the throne of Portugal, under the title of King John the Fourth. From this period till 1661 there was a constant strife between the Portuguese and the Hollanders, the latter continually undermining the power of the former in India, while in 1654 the Portuguese drove the Hollanders entirely out of Brazil. Nothing very remarkable occurred in their affairs until the consummation of the famous METHUEN TREATY, made with England, of which we have given a history on the first page of our October number, to which we refer. This was called at that time a treaty of *reciprocity;* England favoured the Portuguese wines, admitting them at 33⅓ per cent. less duty than those of other nations, and British woollens were admitted at low duties into Portugal. Mr. King, the editor of the British Merchant, remarks upon this treaty as follows: "By this treaty we gain a greater balance from Portugal than from any other country whatever. By it, also, we have increased our exports thither from about three hundred thousand pounds yearly to near one million five hundred thousand pounds." The treasures of the mines and other products of Brazil were about this time poured into the lap of Portugal in great profusion—for in 1734 two vessels, one from Bahia and the other from Rio Janeiro, took to Lisbon the following articles of gold, silver, precious stones, tobacco, hides, sugar, &c.:

Crusados in gold	15½	millions.
Gold dust and ingots	220	aroba.
Gold in bars	437	do.
Wrought gold	48	do.
Silver	8,871	marks.
Pieces of eight	42,803	pieces.
Diamonds	3 millions, 36 octaves and 5 quintals.	
Tobacco	11,000	rolls.
Hides	113,000	
Sugar	1,000	chests.

and many other particulars; and as great quantities of diamonds had been taken over from the newly discovered diamond mines in Brazil, the King, for preventing their sinking in value by reason of the large quantities imported, published an edict, in the beginning of the year 1735, reserving to himself all diamonds found in those mines above twenty carats fine on certain conditions. In the year 1736 Brazil produced sixty-seven thousand six hundred chests of sugar, each of 1200 weight; in all, 811,200 weight of that commodity, with which they supplied Spain and many parts of the Mediterranean coasts, Holland and Hamburg.

It is somewhat remarkable that Portugal, the European power which opened the way to the East and neglected the West, should by an accident (the shipwreck of Cabral on the coast of Brazil) have acquired so great and rich a country to furnish her with gold and jewels, at a time when most of her Eastern possessions were taken from her by the hardy and enterprising Hollanders, who were supplanted (not by the English nation, but) by an incorporated company of merchants, "the English East India Company."

We have thus traced the extraordinary history of Portugal, up to a period in which her once great commercial importance existed no more. From that time to the present she has gone on declining, till now, as a commercial nation, her very name has become a by-word of reproach. To some of our readers it may, therefore, appear that we are taking up too much space and occupying too much time with this fallen Star, which once shone with so much brilliancy in the East and in the West. But if they will follow us, we promise them to draw from it an example which may well be presented to the advocates of Free Trade. It is said, and it formerly gained credence, that experience is a safe teacher, as well to nations as individuals; and although steam and electro-magnetism scarcely give time to stop for reflection, we trust the commercial history of Portugal may claim a passing thought from our readers, for it is indeed replete with instruction.

In this view, we ask attention to the following account given of the decline of Portugal, by the philosophic historian of the "Two Indies, the Abbé Raynal."

"The first conquest of the Portuguese in Africa and Asia did not stifle the seeds of their industry. Though Lisbon was the general warehouse for India goods, her own silken and woollen manufactures still went on, and were sufficient for the consumption of the mother country and of Brazil. The national activity extended to every thing, and made some amends for the want of population, which was daily increasing. Amongst the many calamities that Spanish tyranny brought upon the kingdom, the Portuguese could not complain of a cessation of labour at home, nor was the number of trades much lessened when they recovered their liberty.

"The happy revolution that placed the Duke of Braganza upon the throne, was the period of that decay. The people grew enthusiasts. Some crossed the seas to go and defend distant possessions against an enemy whom they imagined more formidable than he really was. The rest took up arms to cover the frontiers. Private interest was silenced by the interest of the whole, and every patriot was solicitous for his country alone. It might naturally be expected that, when the first heat was over, every one would resume his usual employment; but, unfortunately, the cruel war which followed that great event was attended with such devastation in an open country, that the people chose rather not to work at all than expose themselves to see the fruits of their labours continually destroyed. The ministry favoured this inaction by the measures they took, which were highly blameable.

"Their situation put them under a necessity of forming alliances. Political reasons secured to them all the enemies of Spain. The advantages they reaped from the diversion made in Portugal, could not fail to attach them to her interest. If the new court had formed such extensive views as their proceedings seem to indicate, they would have known that they had no need to make any concessions in order to secure friends. By an ill-judged precipitation they ruined their affairs. They gave up their trade to other powers, who were almost as much interested in its preservation as they were themselves. This infatuation made those powers imagine they might venture any thing; and they accordingly stretched the privileges that had been granted them far beyond what was intended. The industry of the Portuguese was destroyed by this competition, but was again excited by an errour of the French ministry.

"France, who then had but a little bad tobacco and still less sugar, in 1464, without any apparent reason, prohibited the importation of sugar and tobacco from Brazil. Portugal, in return, prohibited the importation of all French manufactures, the only ones they valued at that time. Genoa immediately seized upon the silk trade, and has engrossed it ever since; but the nation, after some hesitation, began, in 1681, to manufacture their own woollen goods; and, having seduced some English artificers, were enabled, in 1684, to prohibit several kinds of cloth, and soon after all sorts.*

"England, which had advanced her own trade with Portugal upon the ruins of that of France, was much chagrined at the turn it had taken. For a long time the English strove to open the communication afresh, and more than once they thought they had attained their end; but at last found themselves farther from it than ever. There was no knowing where all this would end, when a revolution happened in the political system of Europe, which at once overturned all the former ideas.

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* Though, by the low price at which they were rated, they paid but twelve in place of twenty-three per cent., which they ought to pay at their entry, the revenue of the custom-house was so greatly diminished that murmurs of disapprobation were heard everywhere. The Count d'Ericcira, the author of these fortunate alterations, had the courage to take the blame upon himself. It was enough for him to labour for the good of his country, by putting an end to an importation that made so many millions go out of the kingdom.

"A grandson of Louis XIV. was called to the throne of Spain. All nations were alarmed at this accession of power to the house of Bourbon, which they already thought too powerful and too ambitious. Portugal, in particular, who had always considered France as a fast friend, now beheld in her an enemy, who must wish, and perhaps promote, her ruin. This induced her to apply for the protection of England, who never failed to turn every negotiation to her own commercial advantage, and was far from neglecting so favourable an opportunity. The English ambassador, Methuen, a profound and able negotiator, signed a treaty, on the 27th of December, 1703, by which the court of Lisbon engaged to permit the importation of all British woollen goods on the same footing as before the prohibition, on condition that the Portuguese wines should pay a duty one-third less than the French, on being imported into England.

"The advantages of this stipulation were very real for one of the parties, but by no means so for the other. England obtained an exclusive privilege for her manufactures, as the prohibition remained in full force with regard to those of other nations, but granted nothing on her side, having already settled, for her own interest, the very thing that she artfully pretended to grant to Portugal as a great favour. Since France bought no more cloths of the English, they had observed that the dearness of French wines was prejudicial to the balance of trade, and had endeavoured to lessen the consumption by laying heavier duties upon them. They have again increased them, from the same motive, and still made a merit of it to the court of Lisbon, as being a proof of singular friendship.* The Portuguese manufactures fell, being unable to support the competition of the English. Great Britain clothed her new ally; and as the wine, oil, salt and fruit she bought was a trifle in comparison to what she sold, it was made up with the gold of Brazil. The balance was more and more in favour of the English, and, indeed, it could not well be otherwise.

"All who are conversant in the theory of commerce, or have attended to its revolutions, know that an active, rich and sensible nation, who have once got possession of a capital branch of trade, will soon engross the whole. They have so great an advantage over their competitors that they weary them out, and make themselves masters of the countries where their industry is exerted. Thus it is that Great Britain has found means to engross the whole produce of Portugal and her colonies.

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* Had she sought for an explanation of this matter, she could easily have brought it about. The registers of the custom-house in England prove that, in the space of four years preceding the treaty, there were consumed in England 31,324 tons of Port wine; and that, during the four following years, the increase was only 698 tons. This calculation makes it appear what ministry have gained. The sequel will show what a sacrifice they have made.

Great Britain, independent of other articles of merchandise, supplied Portugal yearly with woollen stuffs to the amount of 1,300,000*l.* sterling. In return she only got each year from Portugal, in wine, oil, salt, and fruits, 112,820*l.* sterling. Hence a judgement may be formed of the quantity of gold she drew in payment of the balance of trade in her favour. Since that time Portugal has received still more, in proportion to the profits of the mines of Brazil and the consumption of her colonies. She had by degrees been almost wholly swallowed up, and it was next to an impossibility that it could be otherwise.

"The English find the Portuguese in clothing, food, small wares, materials for building, and all their articles of luxury, and return them their own materials manufactured. This employs a million of English artificers and husbandmen.

"They furnish them with ships, and with naval and warlike stores for their settlements abroad, and carry on all their navigation at home.

They carry on the whoſe money trade of Portugal. They borrow money in London at three or three and a half per cent., and negotiate it at Lisbon, where it is worth ten. In ten years time the interest pays the capital, which still remains due.*

"They engross all the inland trade. There are English houses settled at Lisbon, which receive all the commodities of their own country, and distribute them to merchants, who dispose of them in the provinces, mostly for the profit of their employers. A small allowance is the only reward of their industry, to the disgrace of a nation who is mean enough to work at home for the profit of another.

"They carry off even the commission trade. The fleets destined for the Brazils, are the sole property of the English. The riches they bring home are all their own. They will not even suffer them to pass through the hands of the Portuguese, and only borrow their name because they cannot do without it. These foreigners disappear as soon as they have got the fortune they intended, and leave that nation impoverished and exhausted, at whose expense they have enriched themselves. It is demonstrable from the registers of the fleets, that in the space of sixty years, that is, from the discovery of the mines, to the year 1756, 2,400,000,000 livres† worth of gold has been brought away from Brazil; and yet it is a fact, that in 1754 all the cash in Portugal amounted to no more than 15,000,000 or 20,000,000;‡ and at that time the nation owed 72,000,000;§ so that Portugal must have been in a dreadful situation.

"But what Lisbon has lost, London has gained. England, by her natural advantages, was only intended for a secondary power. Though the changes that had successively happened in the religion, government and industry of the English, had improved their condition, increased their strength and unfolded their genius, they could not possibly act a capital part. They knew by experience that the means which, in ancient governments, could raise a nation to any pitch, when, without any connexion with its neighbours, it emerged singly out of nothing, were inadequate in modern times, when the intercourse of nations made the advantages of each, common to all, and thereby left to numbers and strength their natural superiority. Since soldiers, generals, and nations fought for hire; since the power of gold opened every cabinet and made every treaty, England had learned that the greatness of a state depended upon its riches, and that its political power was estimated by its millions. This truth, which must have alarmed the ambition of the English, became favourable to them as soon as they had prevailed upon Portugal to depend on them for necessaries, and had bound them by treaties to an impossibility of procuring them otherwise. Thus was that kingdom made dependent upon a false friend for food and raiment. These were, to borrow the expression of a certain politician, like two anchors, which Britain had fastened upon that empire. They went further still: they made the Portuguese lose all regard, all weight, all influence, in the general system of affairs, by persuading them to have neither forces nor alliances. Trust to us, said the English, for your safety; we will negotiate and fight for you. Thus, without bloodshed or labour, and without any of the calamities that attend conquest, they made themselves more effectually masters of Portugal than the Portuguese were of the mines of Brazil.

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* To these exorbitant profits it may be added, that a nation that never buys but upon credit, and a long credit too, must pay a still higher interest for their goods. They often pay double their value, and sometimes even more.

† 105,000,000*l.*

‡ On an average not much more than 750,000

§ 3,150,000*l.*

"Every thing is connected together, both in nature and in politics. It is hardly possible that a nation should lose its agriculture and its industry, without a visible decay of the liberal arts, letters, sciences, and all the sound principles of government and administration. Portugal is a melancholy instance of this truth. Since Great Britain has condemned that people to a state of inaction, they are fallen into such barbarism as is hardly credible. That light which has shown all over Europe, seems to have stopped at the Pyrenees. They have gone backward, and have incurred the contempt of surrounding nations, after having excited their emulation and provoked them to jealousy. The advantage of having enjoyed excellent laws, whilst all other states groaned under horrible confusion, hath availed them nothing. They have lost the original bent of their genius, by forgetting the principles of reason, morality, and politics. The efforts they might make to emerge from this state of languor and blindness, may possibly prove unsuccessful; because good reformers are not easily to be found in that nation which stands most in need of them. Men who are qualified to change the face of empires, commonly come from far, and seldom start up at once. They generally have their forerunners, who awaken the minds of the people, dispose them to receive the light, and prepare the necessary instruments for bringing about a great revolution. As there is no appearance of any such preparatory steps in Portugal, it is to be feared that the nation must still continue in this humiliating condition, unless they will adopt the maxims of more enlightened states, making the proper allowances for their situation, and call in the assistance of foreigners capable of directing them."

The possessions still held under the dominion of Portugal, comprise none in America, and but very insignificant spots in Asia. Her possessions on the continent of Africa are little more than slave-trading ports. The Azores, Madeira, and the Cape de Verde islands, in the Atlantic Ocean, are almost all that is left of the numerous colonies once possessed by this great commercial nation, who formerly held, as we have shown, the keys of the immense treasures of Asia and America; and although there is a capacity for improvement in what remains to her, yet are they but monuments of her destruction, and beacons to warn other nations of the rock upon which her once noble fleets have been wrecked, and her power among the nations of the earth forever annihilated.

Cannot our readers see in the fate of Portugal, what will be our doom, if we suffer ourselves to be caught by the syren voice of Free Trade. We shall, upon a larger scale, be very much in the same predicament if we follow Secretary Walker's plan of meekness and lamb-like patience, which, however it may recommend itself as a Christian virtue in morals, would leave us far behind in the race for national prosperity which the civilized world is now running, aided by the all-powerful influence of steam and electro-magnetism.

We do not deem it necessary to expend time in drawing the parallel between the fate of Portugal and what would be our destiny if we were to make a treaty with Great Britain, to secure her manufactures to the destruction of our own, if she would throw open her ports for the admission of grain to all the world. This would be, to be more stupid than the Portuguese, for they did at least obtain the promise of advantage, while we should obtain nothing more than the chance of competing with the degraded labour of German and Russian boors, and the still (if possible) more degraded Turks.

But we forbear to push the subject further; the schoolmaster has done too much in the United States to render it necessary. We shall now proceed to give a few tables of the present state of the trade of Lisbon and Oporto, the only two ports of Portugal proper, that have any trade worthy of notice.

It would appear from the tariff adopted by Portugal in 1841, that she has entirely abandoned the system of low duties, since some articles of woollen manufacture are entirely excluded, and all other fabrics of wool, cotton, iron, &c., pay a very heavy duty.

We have selected a few articles, and given a table of the rate per cent. of the duties exacted, with a view to show what they are, more than from any relation they bear to our own commercial connexion with her; for by our account, taken from the Treasury Report of 1844, of our whole commerce with Portugal for that year, it will be seen that it is indeed very small; the imports amounting to less than $200,000, and the exports scarcely exceeding $100,000.

IMPORTS FROM PORTUGAL INTO THE UNITED STATES.

Cloths and Cassimeres	$2,339	Bottles	105	
Corks	411	Chain Cables	306	
Port Wine	147,172	Anchors	134	
Claret	43	Scrap Iron	7	
French Wine	20	Boots and Shoes	21	
White Wine of Portugal	9,291	Salt	14,648—	$181,945
All other Wines	6,890	Articles free of duty not enumerated		12,202
Brandy	115	Specie		3,880
Oil	47	Articles not enumerated paying duties ad valorem		1,678
Prunes	87			
Figs	9			
Raisins	300			$199,705

DOMESTIC EXPORTS TO PORTUGAL FROM THE UNITED STATES.

Whalebone	$566	Tobacco	2,762	
Spermaceti Candles	120	Wax	546	
Staves and Heading Plank, &c.	56,152	Porter, in bottles	50	
Other Lumber	35	Tallow Candles	420	
Masts and Spars	100	Spirits of Turpentine	2,647	
Oak Bark and other Dyes	418	Lead	420	
All Manufactures of Wool	729	Undyed Manufactures of Cotton	907	
Naval Stores	4,296	Paper and Stationery	153	
Beef in barrels	862	Articles not enumerated	51	
Pork in barrels	1,800			
Butter and Cheese	759	Domestic Exports	$99,563	
Rice	26,150	Foreign Exports	3,555—	$103,118

PORTUGUESE TARIFF.

Our trade with Portugal is so very insignificant that we do not deem it necessary to occupy much space with the Tariff of that country. It is seen, as we have said, that grain is prohibited except in times of great scarcity. Rice and staves appear to be the only articles shipped from this country in any considerable quantities. Rice pays a duty of ten per cent. ad valorem, and staves pay the following specific duties:

Barrel staves, per M.	120	reis	13½	cents.
Hhd. staves, "	250	"	27¼	"
Pipe staves, "	1,000	"	$1 09	"

Cotton and woollen goods pay very heavy duties, so as in many cases to amount to a prohibition. Indeed, the lower qualities of woollen cloths are completely excluded.

Their manufactures are confined to coarse and inferiour woollens, a few common cottons and linens of the rudest kind, and a few other very common articles.

Duties payable in Portugal on the following articles, by the Tariff of 1841:

MANUFACTURES OF WOOL.		
Brussels Carpets	91	per cent.
Kidderminster do.	143	"
Durants (worsted goods)	42	"
Camlets	40	"
Baize	35	"
Drugget Cloth	30	"
Cashmeres	37	"
Cassinets	40	"
Flannel	43	"
Cassimeres	38	"
Silk Waistcoating	145	"
Waistcoating without silk	24	"
Merinoes	81	"
Blankets	72	"
Printed Mousseline de Laines	35	"
Mousseline de Laine Shawls	155	"
Woollen milled plain Cloth	60	"
Ordinary fine Cloth	30	"
Superfine, from England	90	"
MANUFACTURES OF COTTON.		
Cotton Twist at and under 40	36	"
Do. do. bleached or dyed	47	"
Gray stout Cottons	22	"
White Cottons with glazed finish	23 to 30	"
Cottons woven with dyed thread	52	"
Do. dressed Shawls or Hdkfs.	92	"
Do. of higher value	89	"
White Cambrics of 21 threads and upwards	29	per cent.
Coloured Cambrics	56	"
Cambrics in Shawls or Hdkfs.	58	"
Printed Muslins fm. 21 threads upwards	50	"
Other Cotton goods vary from	33 to 90	"
ARTICLES OF EARTHENWARE.		
White, not transparent	97	"
Coloured edge	83	"
Printed pattern of one colour only	39	"
Printed pattern of two or more colours	86	"
China, transparent but plain	110	"
Printed with landscapes or objects	220	"
Gold, gilt, or other expensive ornaments	61	"
EARTHENWARE.		
Black ware clay	62	"
Silvered do.	31	"
HARDWARE AND CUTLERY.		
Ivory handled knives and forks	50 to 65	"
Horn do. do. do.	35 to 45	"
Polished bone do. do.	50 to 60	"
Razors, according to quality	30 to 65	"
Cast Iron or malleable Iron	250 to 300	"
Pocket Knives	50 to 65	"
Pen-knives, according to quality	50 to 65	"
Other articles of hardware range arbitrarily from	40 to 200	"

The lower qualities of woollen cloths are completely excluded from the Portuguese market.

"Donna Maria, by the Grace of God, &c. Be it known to all my subjects that the General Cortes and Deputies of the Portuguese nation have enacted, and I have sanctioned, the following law:

"*Art.* 1. The importation of foreign grain and flour, of potatoes and of bread, either for home consumption or for the purpose of being warehoused, is prohibited in all the ports of the kingdom of Portuguese and the Algarves.

"Sec. There are excepted from the above restrictions—

"1st. Certain parties privileged as regards these duties.

"2d. Those which are specified by law.

"*Art.* 2. Should the harvest prove insufficient for the home consumption, the government shall authorize the admission of such a supply of foreign grain as may meet the deficiency."

This decree is continued through several more sections, not immediately interesting, detailing the ports at which grain shall be entered when imported, and many other unimportant provisions. When admitted according to the provisions of this law, in times of scarcity, it is to pay the following duties:

	Lisbon.		*Oporto.*	
Hard Wheat, from Baltic and Black Sea	553	Reis.	393	Reis.
On Soft Wheat, such as grows in the United States	326	"	383	"
On Rye, per bushel	286	"	393	"
On Indian Corn, per bushel	500	"	606	"
On Barley and Oats, per bushel	180	"	233	"

In addition to the foregoing, there will be a charge of 80 reis per bushel at the corn market.

200 reis equal $22\frac{6}{10}$ cents.

Area, Population, &c., of Portugal.

PROVINCES, &c.	SUPERFICES. ENGLISH. Miles.	Statute. Acres.	French. Leagues.	Population in 1798.	CHIEF TOWNS.	Population of Chief Towns 1798.
Estramadura	9,855	5,450,880	823	826,680	Lisbon	239,879
Entre Duero et Minho	3,490	1,727,040	221	907,065	Oporto	80,000
Tras-Los Montes	5,450	3,007,760	455	318,665	Braga	14,496
Biera	8,725	4,994,600	753	1,121,595	Coimbra	15,210
Alentejo	10,575	5,348,320	883	380,480	Miranda	500
Algarves	2,780	1,536,000	232	127,615	Faro	10,000
Total	40,875	22,764,600	3,437	3,683,000		
Madeira Isles	....	......	...	100,000	Madeira	
Mozambique, Cape Verde Isles, &c.	....	......	...	140,000	Mozambique	
Azores	....	......	...	196 800	Angra	16,000
Asiatic possessions	....	......	...	390,000	Goa	24,000
Grand Total	....	......	...	4,509,800		

Statement of the number and tonnage of Vessels which entered inwards and cleared outwards at Lisbon, in the year 1835.

COUNTRIES.	INWARDS. Vessels	Tonnage.	OUTWARDS. Vessels.	Tonnage.
American	21	4,499	21	4,499
Austrian	11	3,525	11	3,525
Brazilian	44	11,478	44	11,374
British	328	38,859	317	37,538
Belgian	9	1,495	9	1,495
Bremen	6	1,264	6	1,264
Danish	19	3,590	19	3,590
Dutch	64	6,415	64	6,415
French	33	3,435	33	3,435
Greek	1	260	1	260
Hamburg	13	2,770	13	2,770
Hanoverian	23	2,408	23	2,408
Neapolitan	7	1,582	7	1,582
Prussian	4	686	4	686
Russian	24	6,174	24	6,174
Roman	2	414	2	414
Sardinian	16	2,861	16	2,861
Swedish	87	15,512	87	15,512
Tuscan	6	602	6	602
Spanish	12	608	12	608
Portuguese	249	26,410	249	26,410
Ditto coasters	757	27,053	757	27,053
Total	1736	161,900	1725	160,578

Of the British, 59 arrived in ballast, and 57 with fish from Newfoundland.

Return of the British and Foriegn Trade to the port of Lisbon, during the year ending the 31st of December, 1842:

Entered: British ships, 351, 49,267 tons, 4117 men; American ships, 15; Austrian, 10; Belgian, 9; Brazilian, 12; Danish, 28; Dutch, 44; French, 25; Hamburgian, 6; Hanoverian, 10; Lubec, 1; Mecklenburg, 1; Neapolitan, 5; Oldenburg, 2; Prussian, 2; Russian, 39; Sardinian, 18; Spanish, 22; Swedish, 68; Tuscan, 1; Portuguese, 1120. Total, 1789. It has not been possible to ascertain the tonnage and other particulars of foreign vessels. Sailed: British ships, 340; 47,943 tons; 4,034 men. Other ships, same numbers as arrived.

Of the 351 British vessels that arrived, there were from Great Britain, with general cargoes, 90; coals, 85; ballast, 22; iron, 8; butter, 4; coals and machinery, 1; iron and coals, 2; iron and tin, 2; machinery, 2; horses, 6; from Oporto in ballast, 2; Cephalonia, currants, 1; Oran, ballast, 1; Gibraltar, ballast, 3, cork and bark, 1; Larache, (Africa,) leeches, 3; Civiti Vecchia, wheat, 1; Sierra Leone, timber, 1; Vienna, ballast, 4; Genoa, wheat, 1; Newfoundland, fish, 28; Malta, wheat, 1; Gijon, ballast, 1; Malaga, ballast, 3; Figueira, salt, 1, ballast, 1; St. Michael's, ballast, 6; Maranhao, cotton, 1; Terceira, ballast, 2; Jersey, fish, 1, ballast, 1; Guernsey, ballast, 3; Leghorn, Wheat, 1; Teneriffe, wine, 1; Odessa, wheat, 1; Seville, ballast, 2; Dort, (Holland,) ballast, 1; St. Lucar, ballast, 1; Taganrock, wheat, 1; British steamers from Falmouth, with mail and general cargo, 52; from London, in ballast, 2. Total, 351.

Of the 340 British vessels departed, there were for Great Britain, with fruit, 127; general cargoes, 27; wine and fruit, 9; wheat, 3; salt, 7; cork, 1; salt and onions, 1; salt and wine, 2; salt and fruit, 1; ballast, 1; wine, 1; cork and bark, 1; bones, 1; wine and cork, 1: for Sierra Leone, general cargo, 1; Newfoundland, salt, 22, salt and fruit, 2; Monte Video, salt, 9; Larache, general cargo, 1, ballast, 2; Gibraltar, wheat, 1, fish, 5, ballast, 3; Lima, general cargo, 1; Malaga, ballast, 5; Palermo, ballast, 1; Figueira, ballast, 2; Vienna, ballast, 1, fish, 1; St. Michael's, ballast, 1; Maranhao, general cargo, 1; Quebec, salt and fruit, 2; Sines, ballast, 4; Demerara, ballast, 2; St. Ubes, ballast, 24; Cadiz, general cargo, 1, iron, 1, ballast, 1, butter, 1; Oporto, ballast, 1; Valencia, fish, 1; Alicant, fish, 2; Denia, ballast, 1; Malta, horses, 1; Rio Grande, salt, 1; St. Helena, general cargo, 1; British steamers departed for Cadiz, with part cargoes, 52; Gibraltar, in ballast, 2. Total, 340.

Imports into, and Exports from Lisbon, 1839.

COUNTRIES.	Imports.	EXPORTS.		
		Portuguese possessions	Foreign productions.	TOTAL.
	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.
England	27,329,000	4,813,200	3,430,800	16,198,400
Brazil	10,618,700	5,567,800		
France	3,094,400	793,000		
Sweden and Norway	2,258,100	163,400		
Sardinia	1,799,300	239,400		
Russia	1,733,500	300,900		
Belgium	1,335,700	11,200		
United States	867,700	444,100		
Netherlands	1,051,400	207,800		
Hanse Towns, Hamburg	1,145,600	57,200		
Denmark	742,400	42,800		
Morocco and Barbary	260,500	16,000		
Spain	192,500	13,800		
Austria	127,800	20,800		
Other countries	3,427,400	76,200		
Beche	297,800			
Portuguese possessions in Africa	2,105,300			
" " in Asia	675,900			
Total	59,062,500	12,767,600	3,430,800	16,198,400
Sterling £	......	510,704	137,232	£647,936

The Principal articles of Import were, viz:

	IMPORTS.	fr.	*Principal Countries.*	fr.
Tissues	of cotton	12,747,800	England	11,687,400
			France	666,500
	of wool	6,519,500	England	5,505,000
	of flax	2,981,000	England	1,067,400
			Hamburg	350,400
	of silk	606,600	France	484,800
			England	121,800

IMPORTS—*Continued.*

		fr.		fr.
Metals	raw	2,632,700	Sweden and Norway	994,500
			England	785,000
			United States	645,500
	manufactured	2,545,300	England	1,725,300
			Belgium and Netherlands	683,300
Sugar		4,989,800	Brazils	4,921,000
Rice		2,534,800	Brazils	1,737,000
			Portuguese colonies in Asia	380,900
			Sardinia	222,600
Cod		2,185,000	England	1,313,700
			Sweden and Norway	384,300
			Denmark	189,100
Drugs		2,066,200	Portuguese Africa	502,200
			England	533,200
			Sardinia	375,000
Skins and leather		2,046,700	Brazils	1,612,300
			England	182,200
Coffee and Cocoa		1,663,600	Brazils	1,325,500
			Portuguese Africa	334,600
Flax, raw		1,559,400	Russia	1,398,400
Butter		1,362,600	Hamburg	522,800
			England	427,300
			Denmark	212,000
Wood	raw	881,000	Sweden and Norway	623,800
			Russia	108,500
	manufactured	345,000	Sweden and Norway	147,800
			England	80,000
			United States	65,000
Paper and books		1,046,800	Sardinia	320,200
			England	122,000
Vegetables, fruits and seeds		692,300	Netherlands	203,000
			Barbary and Morocco	197,500
			Sardinia	162,600
Tobacco		589,000	Brazils	422,000
			England	119,000
Silk		528,300	Sardinia	420,300
			England	108,000
Pottery—Delft ware & porcelain		464,800	England	448,300
Tar and pitch		364,000	Russia	162,300
			Norway and Denmark	
Cheese		326,000	Netherlands	282,800
Tea		88,500	Portuguese colonies of Asia	80,000
Specie		980,000	Portuguese Africa	860,000
			England	100,000

EXPORTS. (*Portuguese Products.*)		Value. Francs.	Principal *Countries whither Exported.*	Francs.
Wines		3,465,500	Brazils	2,935,400
			England	287,600
			Russia	203,200
Oil		2,039,000	England	1,502,000
			Brazils	245,000
			United States	225,000
Fruits	oranges and lemons	1,363,000	England	1,268,300
	others	225,000	England	117,000
Wool		1,053,100	England	775,800
			France	180,500
Salt		583,000	Brazils	160,000
			Sweden and Norway	148,500
Metals raw and worked		428,800	England	340,000
Alga tinctoria		414,800	France	371,000
Tobacco, manufactured		323,100	**Brazils**	321,700

EXPORTS—*Continued.*

Drugs	290,300	Brazils	225,000
Wax	185,000	Sardinia	90,000
		Brazils	81,000
Vegetables	162,000	Brazils	130,000
Cork	124,000	England	94,0 0
Paper and books	111,600	Brazils	108,000
Divers tissues	98,000	Brazils	95,000

In 1840 the Foreign Trade of Portugal was thus divided:

England participated	58	per cent.
France "	21	"
All other countries	21	"
	100	

The Portuguese customs value of Cotton Manufactures imported from England, was	£ Stg. 759,280	
Woollens and Linens	472,000	—£1,267,280
Hamburg woollens	36,000	
Silks from France	46,000	—£1,340,280

An account of the Quantities of Wheat, Barley, Rye and Indian Corn, the growth of Foreign Countries, received into the Public Corn Market in the City of Lisbon, for the seven years from 1814 *to* 1820, *both inclusive; with the average medium of those years and the current rate of exchange:*

Years.	Wheat.	Barley.	Rye	Indian Corn.	Total of Corn.	Total value in Portuguese Money.		Current rate of exchange.	Total amount in Sterling Money.		
	Qrs.	Qrs	Qrs.	Qrs	Qrs.	m.	r.		£	s.	d.
1814	123,092	37,324	3,497	8,682	172,595	2,443,768	060	69	702,583	6	4
1815	293,679	63,400	22,176	35,936	415,193	5,064,952	240	68½	1,318,998	19	7
1816	91,548	42,861	2,468	36,481	173,359	2,054,857	920	57½	492,309	14	2
1817	77,207	36,080	7,596	3,070½	123,953½	2,006,861	580	60½	505,896	6	1
1818	306,281	22,448	4,320	156,640	489,695	7,437,570	280	61	1,890,382	8	11
1819	158,227	20,898	4,692	114,609	298,422	2,928,805	760	54½	665,082	19	6
1820	88,242	15,230	920	8,463	114,855	1,118,559	090	51½	238,858	19	5
Total	1,138,276	228,231	45,684	363,881½	1,786,072½	23,055,374	730	...	5,817,112	14	0
Average	162,611	34,033	6,526	51,983	255,153	3,293,624	961	60½	830,587	10	0

The General Value of the Trade of France with Portugal for the following Years:

YEARS.	Imported to France.	Exported from France.	TOTAL.
	Francs.	Francs.	Francs.
1841	1,789,000	3,543,000	5,332,000
1840	1,540,000	2,286,000	4,826,000
1839	1,678,623	3,196,005	4,875,528
1838	1,527,001	2,252,822	3,779,823
1837	1,469,149	2,117,076	3,586.225
1836	1,664,164	3,750,618	5,414,782
1835	2,005,784	6,966,479	8,972,263
1834	1,412,092	3,972,650	5,384,742
1833	1,811,978	2,011,724	3,823,702
1832	1,071,816	1,304,359	2,376,175
1831	811,334	1,625,395	2,436,729
1830	2,174,205	1,806,093	3,980,293
Decennial average	......	......	4,463,028
£ sterling	......	......	178,521

TRADE OF OPORTO.

Oporto is situated on the north bank of the Douro, nearly two miles from its mouth, in latitude 41 deg. 10 min. north, longitude 8 deg. 37

min. west, and about 175 miles from Lisbon; population estimated at from 78,000 to 82,000, including the bourgs on the opposite side of the Douro. A convenient high quay extends along the whole river front of the town. This town is a much cleaner town than Lisbon, but still far from clean in the English sense of the word. It is also considered a more industrious place than Lisbon, having a few inconsiderable manufactories of leather, cordage, silk, wool, linen and cotton; some tanneries, soap works, ship yards and a tobacco manufactory. Vessels of two to three hundred tons can only pass over the bar of the Douro until it is nearly high water. Vessels drawing above 16 feet water can scarcely ever enter the river.

The Douro is navigable by river craft for about 100 miles. By this inland navigation, Oporto has long been the great depot for the wines, cork, wool, fruit, sumach, oil, wool, &c., of the countries watered by the Douro; excepting those parts of Spain through which it flows.

The imports are manufactured goods, corn, beef, codfish, hemp, timber, colonial produce, &c.

In 1835 a convention was agreed upon between Spain and Portugal, allowing the former to navigate the Douro along its course.

Trade of Oporto with various Countries, in the year 1839.

COUNTRIES.	IMPORTS.	EXPORTS.		
		Native Produce.	Foreign Produce.	TOTAL.
	£	£	£	£
England	838,248	790,600	21,836	812,436
Brazil	202,832	137,040	4,348	141,388
United States	14,240	48,420	140	48,560
Russia	57,720	1,284	996	2,280
Sweden and Norway	32,540	5,280	...	5,280
Hanse Towns—Hamburg	15,952	6,528	6,068	12,596
Holland	19,248	3,224	2,672	5,896
France	15,512	1,312	768	2,080
Sardinia—Genoa	7,332	552	6,436	6,988
Austria—Trieste	3,764	226	8,872	9,108
Prussia	12,224			
Spain	332	3,200	...	3,200
Denmark	....	2,636	44	2,680
Portuguese poss'ns in Africa	100	1,084	1,040	2,124
Total	1,220,044	1,001,396	53,220	1,054,616

In the total trade between Oporto and all foreign countries, and Portuguese Africa, which in 1839 amounted to the value of 2,280,000*l.*, compared with that in 1838, there is a decrease in the value of more than 330,000*l.*, viz:

On Imports of 152,720*l.*, or 11½ per cent.
" Exports of 181,768*l.*, or 15½ per cent.

There is an increase in the value of re-exports of 12,968*l.*

The articles which exhibited the greatest variations, were as follows:

Decrease: On Imports—Codfish, iron and steel, rice, wood unprepared, hardwares, cotton-wood, coffee, paper manufactures, and tar.

On Exports—Wines, (130,000*l.*,) silk tissues, oil, salt, and specie.

Increase: On Imports—Tissues of wool, brass, wood prepared (staves,) glassware, coals.

On Exports—Tissues of flax and hemp, fruit and vegetables, cork, jewellery, &c., tallow and candles, cabinet work, hats, wool, and salted provisions.

Since the new Portuguese tariff has been in operation, under which the duties are for the most part extremely high, it has followed as a necessary consequence, that smuggling has very much increased; a fact which will explain the apparent decrease in the trade of Portugal. Two articles would offer great advantages to the French trade, viz: fine cloths, on which there is a duty of 4 francs 91 cents. per kilogramme; and codfish, of French taking, the third quality would probably find a market in the north of Portugal.

The exports of wines from Oporto in 1839 experienced a great falling off, especially in the exports to England and Brazil. This decrease (to a value of 87,932*l.* to the first, and 55,528*l.* to the second of these countries) is to be accounted for by the very large quantities imported into London in the year 1838, which are not yet consumed, and by the disturbance of the trade between Oporto and Brazil, since the publication of the decree of the 6th May, 1839, which levied a duty of 50 per cent. on Portuguese wines imported into Brazil. The high tariff of Portugal, if persisted in, will finally ruin the export wine trade of Oporto, to which the system pursued of classification, and the restriction upon the consumption of British goods, are both opposed.

THE CORN TRADE OF EUROPE.

In the last number of the "National Magazine" we gave an extract from McCulloch's Commercial Dictionary, clearly showing his opinion to be, that whatever deficiencies may at any time arise in the grain crops of England, they could, and would, be supplied from the agricultural countries of the Continent of Europe—so that should the British corn laws be repealed, and wheat admitted freely, even at a nominal duty, it would not benefit our farmers.

As, however, Mr. Secretary Walker appears to lay considerable stress upon this outlet for the grain of the agricultural States of the Union, we propose to devote a few pages to place this matter in the clearest possible light; that none may plead ignorance of a fact which can be established beyond all peradventure or cavil, namely, that wheat and all other kinds of grain and pulse, grown in great abundance on the Continent of Europe, are exported in very large quantities from the ports of the Baltic and the Mediterranean seas, at prices much below what would remunerate the American agriculturist; while the proximity of those European ports would give them great advantages in the cost of transportation, and also in the shortness of the voyage. The freight would be about one-half what we should have to pay, and before our ships could get to England, the demand would be met by European grain.

These facts are well known to all persons who have examined this subject, and it is therefore a matter of great astonishment that Mr. Secretary Walker should not have investigated somewhat into the subject, before venturing with so much confidence the assertion he has made in his Report, that we should at all times have a market for our grain by the repeal of the British corn laws. It is not our present purpose to examine further the errors of that Report, else could we show the entire fallacy of most of its reasoning. We now proceed to give the facts in connexion with the European grain market, reserving what we have further to say on this most extraordinary Report, till we receive it accompanied by the tables to which it refers.

For the present, therefore, we ask attention to the following abstract, from parliamentary documents, of the amount of wheat imported into England from 1760 to 1840:

Years.	Average annual importation.	Years.	Average annual importation.
1761 to 1770	94,089 quarters,	1801 to 1810	555,959 quarters,
1771 to 1780	111,372 "	1811 to 1820	429,076 "
1781 to 1790	143,292 "	1821 to 1830	534,762 "
1791 to 1800	470,342 "	1831 to 1840	908,118 "

So much for the average importations. We now annex a table showing the importation in each year, and the places from whence imported, for the latter period of ten years, say from 1831 to 1840.

Comparative Statement of the Quantities of Wheat imported into the United Kingdom, during the years 1831 *to* 1840.

Whence imported.	1831.	1832.	1833.	1834.	1835.	1836.	1837.	1838.	1839.	1840.
Prussia, ...	298,605	119,320	87,903	20,926	3,236	100.900	315,121	550,826	740,203	800,508
Germany, ..	219.773	43,046	49,421	42,770	11,577	51,562	87,665	312,412	409,729	364,553
Holland, ...	30,249		276		8	3,984	10,741	82,010	116,480	50.612
Italy, ...	253,059	2,304	6	1	1	4	4,483	30,264	335,612	149,328
Russia, ...	464,904	91,290	18.656			1,036	11,244	41,339	371,693	268,263
Denmark. ..	55,960	33,548	7,958	11,732	9,758	10,258	18,240	111,499	196,730	150,351
British Nor. America, .	190,796	89,516	79,416	44,907	14,326				27	8,192
U. States of America, .	42,736	6,286	"	"				555	3,766	73.755
Other countries, ...	280,447	6,107	4,535	3,855	3,722	1,604	8,377	102,525	460,316	127,843
	1,836,529	391,417	248,171	133,091	42,628	169,648	455,971	1,231,460	2,634.556	1,993,405

We ask an examination of these tables, taken from parliamentary reports, and rely upon them to show the gradual increase that has taken place in the exports of grain to England, from the ports of Prussia and Germany, from 1831 to 1840, until it has more than doubled in the latter year, what it amounted to in 1831.

In addition to the opinion of Mr. McCulloch, given in the last number of this work, we may now state, that of Mr. Jacobs, in his report made some years since, (after a journey performed for the express purpose of examining the capacity of the different northern ports for the exportation of grain), is in full and complete accordance with Mr. McCulloch's statement.

But we have still stronger testimony, from communications made by British consuls as late as 1841, and presented to parliament in reply to queries addressed to each consul at the following places: St. Petersburg, Riga, Liebau, Odessa, Warsaw, Stockholm, Dantzic, Konigsberg, Stettin, Memel, Elsinore, Hamburg, Rotterdam, Antwerp, and Palermo.

Question.—What quantity of grain of each kind could be exported to England from the country or district in which you reside, if the trade in corn, in England, were made constantly open at a moderate duty?

The following table is a summary of the quantities, as contained in the several answers, excepting in the cases of Petersburg, Liebau and Hamburg, where the quantity stated is the gross amount which could be exported to all countries. This cannot, however, make much difference—since we find on reference to the fact in the case of Hamburg, McGregor, a recent English writer of great authority, states the import from Hamburg into England in 1841, to have been 460,900 quarters.

Table of mean quantities of Grain which can be furnished from the different Ports of Europe, in answer to queries sent to certain Consuls resident at the places named below:

	Wheat.	Rye.	Barley.	Oats.
	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.	Qrs.
St. Petersburg,	192,500	122,500	47,000	245,000
Riga,	Quantity not stated.			
Liebau,	30,000	170,000	200,000	60,000
Odessa,	150,000	Quantity	not	stated.
Warsaw,	300,000	230,000	17,500	17,490
Stockholm,	1,000	2,000	10,000	12,000
Dantzic	315,000	105,000	42,090	10,500
Konigsberg,	65,000	100,000	20,000	40,000
Stettin,	250,000	40,000	30,000	20,000
Memel,	5,964	45,759	15,466½	20,024½
Elsinore,	175,000	..	275,000	225,000
Hamburg,	538,000	97,000	195,700	158,700
Rotterdam,	Quantity not stated.			
Antwerp,	Quantity not stated.			
Palermo,	200,000	..	..	..
Total,	2,222,464	912,259	852,566½	808,714½

The following notes were added to the table, as explanatory of the views of the consuls:

Stockholm.—The whole of Sweden could export 125,000 quarters of all sorts of grain in average years, but the crops vary in quantity and quality more than in any part of Europe, and there are, on an average, two abundant, three ordinary, and one deficient harvest in every six years. The exports are chiefly to Norway.

St. Petersburg.—In the five years ending 1839, the quantities of corn and grain exported, averaged annually 21,000 quarters of wheat, 18,000 quarters of rye, 260 quarters of barley, and 12,100 quarters of oats. The Consul states, that in years of abundance the quantity which could be exported would be three times as great as is stated in the table. There is an extraordinary (typographical) blunder in the statement of grain produced in the government of *Tamboff*, which is said in 1835 to have amounted to thirty-eight *million* quarters. The population of this province is about 1,600,000, so that each family raises nearly 120 quarters, or food sufficient for twenty-four families, or in the aggregate sufficient for the whole population of England for about two years and a half! Probably about 1,800,000 quarters of grain may be raised in the province, which would still leave some for export.

Riga.—The largest quantities shipped from this port since 1783 have been as follows: Wheat, 166,000 quarters in 1829; barley, 108,700 quarters in 1818; oats, 316,400 quarters in 1829; rye, 104,800 quarters in 1827. The supplies for Riga are principally from Courland, Lithuania, and White Russia. The soil of Livonia, of which Riga is the capital, is not well adapted for the growth of wheat, and rye is the chief production. When the foreign demand is very urgent, the distant provinces of Smolensk, Kaluga, and Orel, send supplies to Riga.

Liebau.—The quantities in the table are those which could be exported in a favourable year. The Consul states that "the greater part of our former supplies was shipped off to Holland and the interiour of Russia." The farmers bring their produce to Liebau, as well as to Windau, in sledges, in the winter season only, consequently exports cannot be made until the the opening of the navigation.

Memel.—We now come to the ports of Prussia. The quantity stated in the table is the actual export of 1839, when the demand was general in many parts of Europe, and shipments were made even to Russia.

Konigsberg.—The returns include shipments from the port of Pillau, as well as from Konigsberg. From 1825 to 1839, the exports of all kinds of grain averaged 221,476 quarters per annum, and if the trade were constantly open, the Consul is of opinion that from 250,000 to 260,000 quarters could be shipped, the proportion of each kind being as stated in the table.

Dantzic.—As the demand from Great Britain had been considerable during the three preceding years, the shipments for that period afford a fair average of the exports of Dantzic if the trade were constantly open at a moderate duty; but from circumstances occasioned by the fluctuation of the duty in England, "there is a greater chance of less than of a larger quantity being shipped." The quantities in the table are the average of the years 1837–8–9.

Warsaw.—We introduce Warsaw in this place, as the exports from Poland are shipped at Dantzic. The statements of the Consul, given in the table, as to the quantity exported, are not accompanied by any remarks.

Stettin.—The crops in this part of Prussia and in Silesia were very favourable in quantity and quality when the return was made, and under these circumstances the export would be as stated in the table, that is, under the prospect of a low duty.

Elsinore.—Taking an annual average of the twenty years, from 1820 to 1839 inclusive, the exports of Denmark and Sleswick-Holstein were —wheat, 106,736 quarters; rye, 135,851 quarters; barley, 302,752 quarters; and oats, 172,170 quarters. There is a permanent demand for barley from Norway, and this grain is particularly adapted to the soil and climate of Denmark and the Dutchy. The quantities in the table are such as might be expected to be exported to England in the event of the trade being constantly open at a moderate duty.

Hamburg.—The remark from this Consulate includes Lubec, Bremen, Rostock, Wismar, Kiel, and Oldenburg. The quantities are taken on the average of years in which the largest export has taken place under the most favourable circumstances. In 1839, 496,000 quarters of grain of all kinds were shipped at Hamburg, being the largest quantity ever exported. From 1820 to 1839 about 240,000 quarters were exported annually. In 1821 only 85,000 quarters were exported, and in 1835 about 100,000 quarters.

Rotterdam and Antwerp.—The reasons why the Consuls at these places were unable to render their returns complete, by filling up the parts left vacant in the table, will be stated in noticing the fifth query.

Odessa.—The annual exportation of wheat from Odessa, from 1830 to 1839 inclusive, averaged 581,340 quarters annually. Neither rye, barley, nor oats, have ever been exported from these quarters. The Consul states, that "more than 100,000 quarters could not be diverted to a new source of demand without materially disturbing the market of Odessa, and more positively so, if that quantity is to be subtracted from the supply of the finer qualities." The extra supply from the Asoph, "where the demand from old customers is more special and peremptory on account of quality, would, on the same conditions, probably not exceed 50,000 quarters." These are the quantities given in the summary.

Palermo.—About 200,000 quarters could be exported when the harvest has proved abundant. Sicily, once the granary of Rome, ceased to be a corn-exporting country in 1826, in consequence of the heavy land tax, which amounts to 25 per cent. on the rental. The wheat chiefly cultivated is of the hard kind, and could not be ground by English millstones. The soft wheat is liable to spoil if kept more than a twelvemonth in granary.

So much for the quantities which can be relied upon. We now offer a table, with explanatory notes from the same Consuls, showing the prices at the different ports.

Average prices per quarter free on board; and probable freight per quarter to England.

	Wheat.		Rye.		Barley.		Oats.		Freight per Quarter.	
	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.	s. d.
St. Petersburg,	39 1		19 4		17 11		12 6		4 5 to	5 0
Riga,	49 7		26 4		21 10		18 0		4 9	
Liebau,	43 7		25 9		18 7		11 4		4 6 —	5 0
Odessa,	26 6		..		..		..		10 0 —	
Warsaw,	36 0		..		..		..		..	
Stockholm,	30 0 to	35 0	22 0 to	24 0	15 0 to	18 0	11 0 to	12 0	3 6 —	6 0
Dantzic,	40 0		20 0		18 0		12 0		3 6 —	4 0
Konigsberg,	40 0 —	45 0	18 0 —	20 0	14 0 —	18 0	10 0 —	14 0	4 0 —	6 0
Stettin,	40 0		22 0		20 0		14 0		4 0 —	5 0
Memel,	35 0		27 0		15 0		10 0 —	12 0	4 0 —	5 0
Elsinore,	30 0 —	36 0	22 0 —	25 0	16 0 —	24 0	12 0 —	15 0	3 6 —	5 0
Hamburg,	35 0 —	46 0	23 0 —	30 0	20 0 —	25 0	11 0 —	16 0	2 6 —	5 0
Rotterdam,	55 0		..		..		15 0 —	22 0	2 0 —	2 6
Antwerp,	56 5		32 1		28 9		22 1		2 0 —	2 6
Palermo,	38 0		..		..		..		8 3	
Average,	40s. 6d.		24s. 0½d.		19s. 6½d.		14s. 1¾d.		4s. 9¾d.	

Stockholm.—There is no duty on exportation.

St. Petersburg.—Under ordinary circumstances the prices would be for hard wheat 39*s*. 1*d*. per quarter, and for soft 33*s*. 6*d*. The prices for other grain in average years would be those inserted in the table. The prices of different sorts of grain in 1835 in the government of Tamboff were—wheat, 13*s*. 6*d*. to 14*s*. 1*d*.; rye, 7*s*. 1*d*. to 7*s*. 7½*d*.; oats, 4*s*. 9½*d*. to 5*s*. 5½*d*. per quarter. The expenses to St. Petersburg were about 50 per cent. on wheat, and above 100 per cent. on rye and oats.

Riga.—No statements are given beyond those which the table supplies, excepting that it is said freights would have been higher had there been more corn for exportation to England this year.

Liebau.—The prices apply to corn and grain of first-rate qualities. There would besides be charges for lighterage, as vessels cannot take in their whole cargo in the harbours of Liebau and Windau. These amount to 3½*d.* or 4*d.* per quarter, and there is also to be added the cost of warehouse rent, mats for dunnage, fire insurance, sound dues, and marine insurance. The freight of oats to England is from 3*s.* 9*d.* to 4*s.* per quarter.

Memel.—The freights are chiefly regulated by timber freights.

Konigsberg.—The freights to the east coast of England are from 4*s.* to 5*s.* the quarter for wheat, and to the west coast from 5*s.* to 6*s.*

Dantzic.—The treaty of Vienna stipulates that the duties levied by the governments of Austria, Russia, and Prussia, conjointly, on the produce of the soil of the ancient Polish provinces, shall not exceed 10 per cent. on the prime cost, so that a heavy export duty could not be charged without the infraction of this treaty. The transit dues are included in the prices in the table.

Warsaw.—The remunerating price of wheat at Warsaw is 24*s.* per quarter. The expenses of water carriage from thence to Dantzic may be taken at 12*s.* the quarter.

Stettin.—The expenses of screening, loading, and commission, are included in the prices free on board.

Elsinore.—The freight of wheat from Danish ports varies from 3*s.* to 3*s.* 6*d.* per quarter in summer, and from 4*s.* 6*d.* to 5*s.* in winter. To the western coasts of England it is usually from 3*d.* to 6*d.* higher. The exportation is duty free, but the expenses of insurance and commission are to be added to the prices in the table.

Hamburg.—"It is not to be expected," says the Consul, "that prices would be lower than the average, unless an over-abundant production in Great Britain should cause a cessation in the demand from that quarter; and on the other hand, they would be higher if the demand became greater." He states that in extraordinary cases the freight to England might be from 8*s.* to 10*s.* per quarter; but the usual freights are those given in the table: there is no export duty.

Rotterdam.—Add 10 per cent. primage to the freights: the rates of insurance vary from three-quarters to one and a half per cent., according to the season.

Antwerp.—The freights in the table are to London and Hull; to Liverpool the freight is 3*s.* to 3*s.* 6*d.* The freight for barley is 20 per cent., and for oats 30 per cent. less than for wheat.

Odessa.—The average price of wheat of fine quality, free on board, was 26*s.* 6*d.* per quarter from 1830 to 1839. "At present (September, 1840) the price of good wheat on board is 32*s.* 6*d.*, though without a visible demand from abroad." Freights vary excessively, having fluctuated from 6*s.* 2*d.* to 21*s.* 6*d.* per quarter in the two preceding years. A good freight is supposed to be 10*s.* per quarter.

Palermo.—In abundant harvests the price of wheat is 32*s.*, and an average harvest 38*s.* per quarter.

The fourth query was for the purpose of ascertaining what "other" charges would be incurred besides freight; if, for example, export duties were imposed. Where any such additional charges are made, the fact has been mentioned in the above notes.

5. "Whether, if there were a regular and steady demand in England

for foreign corn, the quantity of corn produced in the said country or district would, without much difficulty and in a short space of time, be materially increased?"

Stockholm.—Foreign capital would be requisite to ensure an increased production.

St. Petersburg.—" There are extensive tracts of land in the provinces that now supply St. Petersburg, which would, no doubt, be brought into cultivation, were a steady and certain market for corn opened at this place."

Riga.—Rye is cultivated in preference to wheat, as it is the bread-corn of the country, is used in the distilleries, and shipped extensively to Holland. The principal corn districts are too remote from the ports to enable the farmers to get their crops to market sufficiently early for exportation in the same year, and therefore they cannot profit so decidedly by the occurrence of a bad harvest in England as those in the neighbourhood of some other of the Baltic ports. The rapid increase of manufactures has withdrawn many hands from the cultivation of the soil in this part of Russia. The cultivation of beet-root for the sugar refineries, and the constant demand for flax, which always obtains remunerating prices in the Riga market, also tend to counteract any great increase in the production of corn.

Liebau.—The query is answered in the negative.

Memel.—" In four or five years about a fourth more grain would be cultivated. This depends, however, entirely upon how high the fixed duty is. Ten shillings per quarter for wheat would be worse for the landholder here than the present system : for instance—

Prime cost,........................	35s.	per quarter.
Freight, insurance, landing charges, &c.	10	"
Duty,..................................	10	"
Total....................................	55s.	

whereby many years would come wherein the merchants here could not export at all."

Konigsberg.—The farmers find it more profitable to devote their attention to the breeding of sheep, horses, and cattle which, particularly wool, answer better than growing corn.

Dantzic.—The chief quantity of grain shipped here is the produce of Poland; but the districts of Prussia adjoining Dantzic are in such a state of advanced cultivation, that " a larger supply for shipment could not be expected (at least not to any extent) than the last three years have supplied."

Warsaw.—" The quantity of wheat grown in Poland has considerably increased in the last six years, and the production might no doubt be further gradually increased if there were a steady demand for foreign corn in England ; but the deficiency of manure, the scarcity of hands, and the want of skill in the cultivation of the land, would operate against any large immediate increase." The Consul at *Stettin* reports that " the production of all kinds of grain has these two or three years been extended to a considerable degree ; it is therefore not expected the landowners can much augment the same, the cultivating of additional soil not being in their system of agriculture, particularly as the production of oil-seed, of potatoes for spirit, and pasture and food for sheep and cattle, has been too advantageous for them to curtail the same to any considerable degree."

Elsinore.—In case of a regular and steady demand in England for foreign corn, the quantity produced in Denmark and Sleswick-Holstein "would, without difficulty, and in a short space of time, be materially increased, as has already been the case of late years, in consequence of the improvements made in husbandry, and of large tracts of waste lands having been brought under cultivation by an increasing population, chiefly agticultural." The quantities likely to be produced under this encouragement are stated in the table under the first query.

Hamburg.—The answer to the query respecting the likelihood of an increased quantity of grain being produced is, "Probably not." Mr. Consul-General Canning gives the following reasons for this opinion: "Because as much land is already appropriated in this district to the growth of corn as the system of husbandry established in these dutchies will admit of. Wool, butter, and potatoes for distillation, having for many years been profitable produce to the farmer, he will not easily be induced to give up the cultivation of the latter, or to sell off his sheep and cattle, which, moreover, afford manure positively necessary for the cultivation of grain. But although the quantity of grain may not be increased in a short space of time, the kind of corn may be changed, and more wheat, but less of other grain, under such a change of circumstances, may be grown than at present. Still, however, this will occur only to a limited extent, and at times when high prices in other countries may encourage the export of wheat; for the habits of the people in this district causing a demand for rye for home use, the demand for it in other countries, and the nature of the soil being generally fitter for the cultivation of rye, will always have a tendency to prevent any great extension of the growth of wheat in these countries."

Rotterdam.—Large quantities of the produce of northern Europe and the countries on the Rhine are warehoused in Holland and re-exported to other parts. Confining the question to Holland, the Consul states that more wheat is grown in that country than is required for its consumption, but "it is not of a quality adapted to the English market." The effect of opening the corn trade in England would not "materially" increase the production of wheat in Holland. Rye grown in Holland is seldom or never exported; and the barley is "quite unsuitable" to the English market. Dutch oats are much esteemed in England, but the quantity grown (about 800,000 quarters) is not at present more than adequate to the home demand. Still, if the demand from England were regular and constant at remunerating prices, "it may safely be assumed that an increased cultivation (of oats) would speedily ensue." It is added, that "beans and peas are both likely to be grown in greater quantity," but to what extent it is impossible to state.

Antwerp.—Belgium produces neither corn nor grain for export; and the Consul states that it is not probable, "under any circumstances," that the production could be influenced by the demand from England. Writing in August, 1841, he says: "The exportation of wheat and rye is at present prohibited, and with an augmented population, the quantity of land cultivated for flax, beet-root, and chicory, which is increasing throughout Brabant, Limburg, and Liege, has so diminished the growth of corn, that there is a deficiency of produce."

Odessa.—The quantity which could be spared for England from the districts adjacent to Odessa and the countries bordering the Sea of Asoph is at present not more than 150,000 quarters of wheat, as already stated. In reply to the present query, the Consul states that "there would be no material increase, and certainly not in a short space of time." The grounds for this opinion are very succinctly detailed, and several of them apply to a large portion of northern, central, and eastern Europe, as well as the countries bordering on the Black Sea. They are as follows: "1. Because in Bodolia and Kievy, whence Odessa derives its principal supplies, the greatest quantity possible of grain is at all times produced without regard to price and demand, in consequence of capital being vested in slave-labour, which is not otherwise to be employed. 2. Because the plains, called steppes, adjacent to the Black Sea and Asoph, are thinly peopled, so that in years when crops are abundant they remain neglected on the ground, for want of reapers. 3. Because on these steppes crops are exceedingly precarious, by reason of drought, the common calamity of this climate; of the high winds, which carry off the seed from the dusty soil; of the early thaws and subsequent frosts without snow. 4. Because tillage is defective, and improvement difficult under the present circumstances of the country. 5. Because distances are great and communications unaided by art, there being no roads, and the rivers being unnavigable. 6. Because the landlords are impoverished, and most of them indebted to the crown, and the working classes are degraded by their condition of slavery. 7. Because no progressive improvements are to be expected in Russia until great organic changes are brought about; or so long as the real interests are sacrificed to an anti-commercial policy. Very high prices may indeed cause at times a greater exportation, not by increase of production, but by extending the circle of supply."

Palermo.—If the farmer could continually obtain 35*s*. per quarter free on board, the production of hard wheat could be increased in three or four years.

It thus appears, from indisputable testimony, that England can rely upon a supply of upwards of two millions of quarters of wheat, and very near a million of quarters of each of rye, barley, and oats. Accurately, 3,796,003 quarters of these principal grains.

But what more particularly relates to us, is wheat—as it is not pretended we could supply either rye, barley, or oats. Nor should we think, after this exhibit of quantities and prices, and rates of freight, mostly ranging from 3*s*. to 4*s*. per quarter, any doubt can exist as to the position we have taken, that were the British ports open to the free admission of corn of all kinds to-morrow, no benefit could possibly result to the American agriculturist.

We think the establishment of this fact, at this time, will be admitted to be highly important—the more so, that Mr. Secretary Walker has assumed in his Report, in this respect (as in many others) what will not stand a moment when brought to the test of those stubborn things called facts, which always stand in the way to overthrow suppositious reasonings.

THE GREAT WEST.

We have for a long time had an ardent desire to enrich our pages with an approximate account of the present flourishing state of that magnificent portion of the United States admitted on all hands to be eminently entitled to the name of the "Great West." With this in view, we have made every exertion to procure a statement of its present condition, by some competent person resident within its borders. Having failed to accomplish this very desirable consummation, we have concluded to make the attempt ourselves, aided by such documentary testimony as we have been enabled to obtain, in the hope that should they lead us into any errours, it may rouse up some competent son of that great section to give us a true account of its present gigantic proportions.

The great plain of the Mississippi includes in its extent eighteen degrees of latitude, from the 29th to the 47th, yielding all the varied productions of the temperate zone, and not a few of those which belong to the higher and lower latitudes, combining within itself the materials of an immense internal traffic.

What was a wilderness within half a century, is now teeming with an active and hardy population of upwards of 5,000,000, employed in all the arts of civilised life, and partaking of the blessings of human existence, to an extent, and in a profuseness, which may well challenge a comparison with any equal number of human beings that now exist, or ever have existed in any age of the world.

It is impossible to think of this great region, with its mighty rivers, its lofty mountains, its extensive forests and immense plains, without a feeling that nature is there exhibited upon a scale so grand and vast, that it is difficult for a mind unaccustomed to domains so extended, at once, to bring them within its scope, so as to see them as a whole, keeping at the same time in view their integral parts.

Who can, at one and at the same moment, think of the commerce of the great internal seas of the State of New York, with their tens of thousands of tons, of steamboats, and other craft, with which the Great West is connected—of the 1,000 miles of the Ohio, from Pittsburgh to its mouth—the 2,000 miles of the Mississippi, from the falls of St. Anthony to the ocean—of the 3,000 miles of navigation on the Missouri, and the probable 6,000 miles of the various tributary streams of these Niles of the Western World? And yet, within the last half century, not only has this immense territory been peopled with millions of human beings, but cities, towns, and villages everywhere abound; and where, but now, nought was known in the human form but the wandering savage—nought heard but the howlings of wild beasts—agriculture, commerce, and the arts, have, as if by the wand of the enchanter, sprung into existence; colleges and schools have been founded, and temples reared for Christian worship, where praises are chanted to that beneficent Providence which has thus blessed this immense region, and where ardent prayers are offered up for the continuance of favours so bountiful, and privileges so extensive.

We have before us a memorial presented to Congress in the month of March, of the year 1844, by the citizens of Cincinnati, Ohio, from which we shall make liberal extracts, not doubting, from the characters of the parties whose signatures are attached, that the statistics incorporated in this document may be relied upon, as giving a just and true account of the then state of things. Nor do we for a moment doubt, the truth, could it be ascertained to a strict accuracy, would now much exceed what is here stated of the abundant prosperity and unexampled progress which is everywhere made and making throughout that magnificent region. The prayer of the petition, as will be seen, is for appropriations by Congress for the improvement of the Western waters.

With a suitable commencement to open the subject, the memorial proceeds:

The region in question is no less than the Great West, a wilderness fifty years ago, but now an important integral portion of a great nation. It contains nine States and two Territories, and parts of two other States. The aggregate population of all the States and Territories bordering on the navigation of the Ohio and Mississippi is 8,437,779; or, if we include only one-third of the population of Pennsylvania and Virginia, for the portion residing west of the Alleghany mountains, we have an aggregate of 6,461,892, which is a little over one-third of the population of the United States. We approach the Congress of the United States, then, with a claim in which, under the most narrow view of the subject, one-third of the American people are obviously and directly interested; and in which a majority of the population of the Union are interested, if we include the whole of the inhabitants of the States which border on those rivers. But we hold this to be a very inadequate view of the question of interest; for such is the magnitude of our trade, and the intimacy of our relations with the Atlantic States, that there is scarcely a corner of the Union which is not bound to us by a constant and reciprocal interchange of commercial advantages. Three of the Atlantic States have been engaged for years in rival exertions to secure the advantages of the Western trade, and have expended millions of treasure in the endeavour to attract that trade to their respective seaports. Another great State has recently embarked in the same patriotic contest, with a spirit which shows how high an estimate is placed upon the prize. Which of these States is not directly interested in the transportation of merchandise throughout the whole length of our Western rivers? Which of them can view with indifference a question that involves the facility, the safety, and the cheapness of navigation, upon these great channels of commerce? After constructing, by the most lavish expenditure, railroads, turnpikes, and canals, leading to the West, does their pecuniary interest cease, and their patriotism die, at the termini of their gigantic works; and have they no further concern in the merchandise or the passenger which has passed their boundaries? These questions are easily answered. Those who purchase our products are interested in every tax upon our industry, and they who supply us with foreign merchandise or manufactured articles that we consume, are concerned in all the facilities for transportation, by which their market is rendered accessible. Whatever affects the cost of freight and insurance concerns all mutually who participate in the interchange of commodities.

Of the millions of property floating annually upon the Western waters, much is owned directly by citizens of the Atlantic States; and of the hundreds of thousands of passengers who crowd our steamboats, a vast number are inhabitants of those States, who are drawn hither by business, by curiosity, in the pursuit of pleasure, or in the search of a new home. The subject, then, is not one of local concern or sectional character; and in asking Congress to expend a liberal portion of the public treasure in removing the obstructions from our great Western highways, we believe that we represent the wants and interests not merely of eleven States and two Territories, but of *the American people.* We invite the patronage of the nation to a great central chain of national intercommunication, which pervades nearly the whole Union, having its connexions with the ocean through Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, and New Orleans, and extending its advantages westwardly, throughout the wilderness, to the extreme frontier. * * * * * *

The length of the rivers which we propose to have improved at the national charge is worthy of consideration. Without burdening this memorial with unnecessary details, upon a subject of general notoriety, we may state, in round numbers, that the length of the Ohio, from Pittsburgh to its mouth, is 1,000 miles; and that the length of the Mississippi, from the falls of St. Anthony to the ocean, is 2,000 miles—giving an extent of 3,000 miles for the principal rivers, the improvement of which we ask by the General Government. But in showing the national character of this navigation, and its importance in comparison with that of the ocean, we add for the navigable length of the Missouri 3,000 miles, and for the aggregate navigable extent of all the tributaries which pour their freights into these principal rivers 6,000 miles more, making the whole extent of navigation 12,000 miles. The policy which would consider a connected chain of navigation of 12,000 miles in extent, and spread over an area of 432,000 square miles, of unexampled fertility and boundless resources, as of local or sectional interest, must be narrow indeed. But if we are to consider the extent of this navigation, in competition with the line of the seacoast of the United States, for the purpose of vindicating our claim to a proportionate share of the protection of the government, it will be necessary to double its length, as our navigation has a double coast, and we have 24,000 miles of river shore, inhabited by American citizens, who are as much interested in the trade of these rivers as any portion of the American public in that of the Atlantic.

Large as the interest would seem which is indicated by these figures, it is even greater than we have stated. In order to form an adequate idea of the importance of these great rivers as channels of commerce, we must embrace in our view the whole of the great system of intercommunication of which they are only connecting links. They are but parts of a great whole—important fractions of a magnificent system. Their most obvious and direct connexion is with the great Northern lakes, a vast chain of inland seas, surrounded by a productive country, and already whitened by the sails of a most valuable commerce. We cannot better illustrate the magnitude of this trade than by quoting from a speech recently delivered in Congress by a member from Ohio.

"Mr. Giddings attributed this neglect of western commerce to its silent and gradual growth. Until after the purchase of Louisiana it scarce had an existence; and the people on the seaboard, even to this day, have no adequate conception of its extent and importance. The American flag had first been raised on Lake Erie, within his personal recollection, on board of a small schooner of seventy tons, in 1796. In 1802 the first government vessel was launched there. Previous to 1815, the arrivals at Buffalo, now the queen city of the Western lakes, were so few as not to be recorded; they were then 395, they now exceed 4,000. The first steamboat was built in 1818; there were now on Lake Erie alone 64 steamboats. After going to some extent in these statistical details, Mr. Giddings, to give Southern gentlemen a more adequate conception of what the Western commerce really was, went on to state, that, in 1842 the State of Ohio alone had built vessels of a larger aggregate amount of tonnage than Virginia, South Carolina, Georgia, Alabama, Florida, Louisiana, and Mississippi, with Missouri, Arkansas, and Tennessee, in the bargain. Was a navigation like this entitled to no regard, no protection at the hands of government? Including ships, brigs, and craft of all descriptions, there were 400 vessels now navigating these lakes above the Falls of Niagara. The first steamboat built at Chicago was in 1832; and in eleven years the tonnage of that port had grown up to 117,000 tons.

"On a lake coast exceeding 5,000 miles, there had been bestowed by the government but $2,400,000, (while in Delaware harbour alone it had spent $300,000.) Of this coast, 240 miles belonged to the State of Ohio, and it had received but $423,000. Lake Erie had no natural harbour on all its southern coast, insomuch that Perry's fleet had to lie for protection under some little islands near the head of the lake. The mouths of the rivers were open in the spring, but as soon as the freshets subsided, the strength of the stream was no longer sufficient to force its way into the lake; the consequence of which was, that by midsummer a bar of sand was deposited all across the mouth of the harbour, so that a man might walk across dry shod. When a good harbour had been made by projecting parallel piers into the lake, as at Cleveland, vessels of six or seven hundred tons could enter at all times without the least difficulty.

"Mr. Giddings here went on to enumerate the harbours where improvements of this kind had been made or commenced, but all abandoned in 1838; in consequence of which, all that had been done went to ruin, and some of the harbours were entirely closed. From 1825 to 1838 these improvements were made the care of the Government, and appropriations were from time to time made, and economically applied. The people were satisfied and grateful; but in 1838 the very tools necessary to preserve what had been done were publicly sold, the Government expressly recommending that these works be abandoned. The people then learned what they had to expect."

The Buffalo Commercial Advertiser furnishes the very interesting statistics below, showing the amount of merchandise and furniture which passed that great key of the lakes in the past year. Ohio, Indiana, and Illinois, all receive goods through other routes. Michigan receives hers almost exclusively from Lake Erie.

The tolls show conclusively that the stream of emigration is to Wisconsin; but that Ohio is the great consumer of merchandise.

"The quantity of merchandise and furniture arriving here and passing westward is one of the best criterions of the growth and prosperity of the interiour. In connexion with our table of canal exports, we gave the aggregate of merchandise received. The ultimate destination of this property, and the families accompanying it, exhibit fully the leading points of emigration during the past season.

"Of the merchandise, Ohio has received much the greatest quantity, while the heaviest aggregate of furniture has gone toward Wisconsin. The annexed table shows this:

"*Exhibit of Merchandise and Furniture passing Westward in* 1843.

STATES, &c.	Merchandise.	Furniture.
	Lbs.	*Lbs.*
Ohio	29,056,865	1,384,372
Michigan	16.505,281	1,492,627
Illinois	6,954,903	1,275,377
Wisconsin	5,730,523	2,630,190
Indiana	4,511,301	249,936
Pennsylvania	152,023	51,664"

The exports of wheat and flour from four ports upon the lakes, viz: Cleveland, Detroit, Sandusky, and Chicago, in 1843, amounted to the following aggregate: wheat, 1,894,992 bushels; and flour, 812,903—worth about *four and a half millions* of dollars.

The value of all the exports from Cleveland alone, for the year 1843, was *five and a half millions.*

The States immediately adjacent to these lakes, and directly interested in their navigation, are New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Illinois, Indiana, and Michigan, all of which have been enumerated in a foregoing part of this memorial as being directly interested in the navigation of the Western rivers, except New York and Michigan. These two States contained together, in 1840, a population of 2,641,188, which, added to that of the States whose borders are washed by the Mississippi and its tributaries, gives a total of 11,078,967, and show the important fact, that *eleven* out of the *seventeen* millions of the population of the United States are directly interested in these two great links of the vast interiour chain of communication.

Nor is this the only form in which we recognise the intimate connexion of these parts. If we take our position at the busy harbour of Buffalo, and behold her quays crowded with merchandise and passengers; if we extend our observation along the great railway and canal to Albany, and thence by the Hudson to New York, and the railway to Boston, we behold an inland thoroughfare of unrivalled extent and magnificence, created by a vast expenditure of treasure, and an unsurpassed exertion of genius, enterprise, and public spirit; and we see this long line of transit crowded with a busy throng of human beings, and rich freights of merchandise. To what end were millions of dollars expended in the construction of these highways, and why are they thus frequented by busy thousands of human beings? It is the road to the West; these countless tons of freight are the products of our rich plains, or the returns of foreign merchandise, which are destined to traverse our lakes and rivers. It is a part of that great inland trade which has grown up within the memory of living men, and has become the pride of our country, its paramount interest, the muscle and sinew of its power.

We cannot separate these interests. It is impossible to consider these great arterial channels, without perceiving their connexion with each other, and tracing their ramification to the utmost extremities of our country. The West is no longer a frontier; it is the heart of the Union. This is not only geographically true, but it is true in every sense. The centre of population, of production, and of consumption, is here. We furnish the greater portion of the exports and consume the greater portion of the imports that make up the sum of the foreign commerce of the nation. Our rivers are no longer margined by silent forests; cities, towns, villages, and cultivated fields, enliven their shores, and bear testimony to the industry, resources, and refinement of the country.

We have said that the Ohio and Mississippi are but parts of a great chain of inland communication. Their tributaries penetrate every Western State, and disseminate throughout the whole of our broad plain the advantages of this navigation; and should Congress carry forward, with the spirit worthy of a great nation, the work of improving the Mississippi and Ohio, it will not be long before every river in the West will be cleared of obstructions by the action of the General or State Governments, and the magnificent spectacle will be presented to the world, of an uninterrupted inland navigation of *more than twenty thousand* miles in extent, within the bosom of a great continent, far removed from the seacoast, and independent of the estuaries and inlets of the ocean!

Nor is the conception of this great highway complete, until we trace it to its extremities. In the South, it connects with the Gulf of Mexico, in latitude 29 deg.; in the North, it falls into the St. Lawrence, communicates with the whole southern boundary of the Canadas, and stretches off into the Atlantic Ocean in latitude 50 deg.; and it extends through Lake Superiour, through a long chain of lakes and rivers, far beyond the utmost bounds of civilization in the Northwest. On the East, it connects itself by canals and railroads, already mentioned, with the seaports of the Eastern and Middle States; while on the West, its advantages are extended by the long channels of the Mississippi, the Missouri, the Arkansas, and Red rivers, beyond the inhabited regions of the United States. From large portions of our country, it is the highway that must be travelled to Texas, to Oregon, and to Canada; it bears the freights intended for our commerce with Santa Fe, the products of the fur trade from the regions of the Rocky mountains, and the traffic with all the Indian tribes upon our borders. Such is the character and magnitude of the grand thoroughfare which we ask the nation to open and improve by its treasure; and such the trade for which we invoke the parental care of the Government.

The number of steamboats employed at this time, in navigating the Mississippi and its tributaries, is 450. The average burden of these boats is 200 tons each, making an aggregate of 90,000 tons; and their aggregate value, at $80 per ton, is $7,200,000. Many of these are fine vessels, affording the most elegant accommodations for passengers, and which will compare favourably, in beauty of model, completeness of finish, and all other particulars, with the best packets in any part of the world.

The number of persons engaged in navigating our steamboats, varies from twenty to fifty for each boat. The average is about thirty-five persons, which will give a total of 15,750 persons embarked in this navigation.

It appears, from the reports of the Louisville and Portland canal, that more than 700 flat boats have passed that canal in one year. At this rate, there cannot be less than 4,000 descending the Mississippi, and allowing five men to each boat, there are 20,000 persons engaged in this branch of the navigation. The cost of these boats is $420,000, which, as they do not return, is an annual expense, and the expense of loading, navigating, and unloading them, is $960,000—making the whole annual expenditure upon this class of boats, $1,380,000.

In 1834, the number of steamboats in existence on the Western waters was 230, and they were estimated to carry 39,000 tons. The expense of running them, was put down as follows:

60 boats over 200 tons, 180 running days, at $140 per day,..........	$1,512,000
70 boats from 120 to 200 tons, 240 running days, at $90 per day,.....	1,512,000
100 boats under 120 tons, 270 running days, at $60 per day,..........	1,620,000
Total yearly expenses,......................	$4,644,000

This calculation, applied to the present number of boats, would result as follows:

110 boats over 200 tons, 180 running days, at $140 per day,..........	$2,772,000
140 boats from 120 to 200 tons, 240 running days, at $90 per day,.....	3,024,000
200 boats under 120 tons, 280 running days, at $60 per day,..........	3,240,000
Total,..................................	$9,036,000

This sum may be reduced to the different items producing it, in the following proportions:

For wages 36 per cent., equal to..................................	$3,252,960
For wood, 30 per cent., equal to.............................. ...	2,710,800
For provisions, 18 per cent., equal to.......................... ..	1,626,480
For contingencies, 16 per cent., equal to........................	1,445,760
Total,....................................	$9,036,000
To this is to be added, for insurance, 15 per cent., on $7,200,000,.....	1,080,000
Tolls of the Louisville and Portland canal,........................	250,000
Interest on the investment, $7,200,000, at 6 per cent.,................	432,000
Wear and tear of the boats, 20 per cent.,......................	1,440,000
Total,.	$12,238,000
Add for the flat boats, as above,................................	1,380,000
Total annual cost of transportation,..........	$13,618,000

The rapid increase of this commerce, may be seen from the following facts:

Previous to the adoption of the steamboat navigation, say in 1817, the whole commerce from New Orleans to the upper country was carried in about twenty barges, averaging 100 tons each, and making but one trip per year. The number of keel boats employed on the upper Ohio could not have exceeded 150, carrying 30 tons each, and making the trip from Pittsburgh to Louisville and back, in two months, or about three voyages in the season. The tonnage of all the boats ascending the Ohio and lower Mississippi, was then about 6,500.

In 1834, the number of steamboats was 230, and the tonnage equal to about 39,000 tons; and in 1842, the number of boats was 450, and their burden 90,000 tons.

In 1842, it was calculated that the whole number of persons deriving subsistence from this navigation, including the crews of steam and flat boats, mechanics and labourers employed in building and repairing boats, wood cutters, and persons employed in furnishing, supplying, loading and unloading these boats, was 90,000. As the number of boats has doubled since that time, the number of people directly engaged in and about this navigation is not less than 180,000; but who shall place a limit to the numbers who are beneficially interested in a business which distributes its millions of dollars for wood, its millions for wages, its millions for provisions, its millions for machinery and the labour of mechanics, and which transports a commerce whose value can only be computed by hundreds of millions?

The whole number of steamboats constructed at Cincinnati in 1843, was 45; the aggregate amount of their tonnage is 12,035 tons, and their cost $705,000; which gives an average of 267 tons for each boat, and about $16,000 for the cost of each.

The models of these boats, as well as their finish and accommodations, evince a progressive improvement upon the boats of former years. They have more length and less draught, and are faster than the last generation; while the hulls are more staunch, though they contain less weight of timber. The cabins are not so gaudy and expensive as those of the old boats, while they are greatly superiour in comfort and convenience. The average cost is about seventy-two dollars per ton, which is a great reduction from former prices.

All the work of these boats is done at Cincinnati, and gives employment to boat builders, carpenters, joiners, engine makers, blacksmiths, coppersmiths, painters, upholsterers, cabinet makers, chair makers, and some other mechanics.

There have been steadily employed at the Cincinnati ship yards, during the year, in the heavier portions of the work:

Hands at the boat yards	320	Engine and foundry men	200
Joiners	200	Painters	50
Total			770

Within the same year, there have been built at Louisville, New Albany, and Jeffersonville, 35 boats, of 7,406 tons, which cost $700,000. These boats would cost $20,000 each, would average 211 tons, and would cost about $95 per ton.

And there have been built at Pittsburgh, in the same year, 25 boats, of 4,347 tons, of which the cost is not given. The average tonnage of the boats, is about 173 tons.

The aggregate of the boats built in 1843, is nearly as follows:

	Boats.	Tons.
Cincinnati	45	12,035
Louisville, New Albany, and Jeffersonville	35	7,406
Pittsburgh	25	4,347
Add for all other places	15	3,000
Total		26,788

The whole tonnage of the Western boats previous to 1843 being 90,000 tons, and the annual loss by destruction and superannuation being twenty per cent., the decrease by the latter cause for 1843, was 18,000 tons, and the increase 26,788 tons—making a nett increase of 8,788 tons.

It will be seen that we have placed the tonnage of our Western boats at 90,000 tons. This was considered to be the real aggregate of the tonnage, when the first edition of this memorial was prepared, in the winter of 1842–43. We have, since that time, had access to official returns, published under the sanction of Congress, showing the tonnage of the West to have been much larger, even at that time, than we stated it to be; but, as we had based all our calculations on the amount stated by us, we have not, in this edition, altered the statement alluded to, but shall add such additional information as we have obtained.

By the official returns, it appears that the whole steamboat tonnage of the United States, on the last day of September, 1842, was 218,994 tons; which may be divided as follows, setting down the figures as we find them in the returns, and only transposing them so as to arrange them under the appropriate heads:

WEST.

	Tons.		Tons.
New Orleans	80,993	Louisville	4,618
St. Louis	14,725	Nashville	3,810
Cincinnati	12,025		
Pittsburgh	10,107		126,278

NORTHWEST.

	Tons.		Tons.
Buffalo	8,212	Oswego	1,970
Detroit	3,296	Cuyahoga	1,859
Presqu'isle	2,315		
			17,652

OTHER

	Tons.		Tons.
New York	35,260	Boston	1,362
Baltimore	7,143	Norfolk	1,395
Mobile	6,982	Wilmington	1,212
Philadelphia	4,578	Georgetown	1,178
Charleston	3,289	Newark	1,120
Newbern	2,854	Miscellaneous	4,767
Perth Amboy	2,606		
Appalachicola	1,418		76,064

The steamboat tonnage belongs to the internal commerce of this country, as we have no steam vessels engaged in foreign commerce, except two or three in the Gulf of Mexico. Of the whole 218,994 tons, it appears that *two-thirds* belong to the West; and as a portion of the other tonnage is employed on routes leading to the West, and connecting with our highways, the commerce of the West may be safely stated as amounting to *more* than *two-thirds* of the commerce of the Union.

Estimating the number of steamboats from their average tonnage, there must be *one thousand* in the United States, of which *six hundred* belong to the West.

The table of tonnage above given, shows where this vast commercial marine is employed. First, in the Valley of the Mississippi, next in the city of New York, and then on the lakes. From the port of New York, there are some 70 or 80 steamboats constantly running; while on the lakes there are hundreds. In the Valley of the Mississippi, the number of steamboats now employed, is equal to the whole number of those employed in England proper. This will appear from the following statement, extracted from McCulloch's Gazetteer, of the steamboat tonnage of Great Britain, in 1834:

	Steam Ships.	Tonnage.
England	434	43,877
Scotland	105	13,113
Ireland	84	17,674
British Dependencies,	49	8,032
Total	722	82,716

It appears, then, that the steamboat tonnage of the Mississippi Valley, exceeds, by 40,000 tons, the entire steamboat tonnage of the British empire. In other words, the steamboat tonnage of Great Britain, is only two-thirds that of the Mississippi Valley. The magnitude of this fact will be best seen by considering that the entire tonnage of the United States, is but two-thirds that of Great Britain—showing that this proportion is exactly reversed in Western steamboat trade.

Not only is the building of steamboats increasing every year, but every year is opening new channels of trade and navigation. In the last year, the river Platte was navigated by a steamboat, for the first time; and it will not be long before the Yellowstone, the Arkansas, Red river, and the Missouri, will employ more boats than are now floating on the Mississippi.

In estimating the value of the property floating upon the Ohio and Mississippi at one time, or within any given period, much must be left to conjecture, as, under our happy form of government, no portion of it is subject to entry at a custom-house, or liable to any official registry, which would place on record the accurate statistics of this commerce. But we are not left entirely without data, from which to form an estimate. approximating the true amount. We know that this trade is carried on by means of 450 steamboats, of 90,000 tons burden, some of which, as the larger boats running to New Orleans, from the more distant ports, make from eight to fifteen trips per year. The boats carrying the vast trade from Pittsburgh, Cincinnati, and Louisville, to and from St. Louis, make thirty trips, while a great number of boats ply between less distant points, and make their trips more frequently. If, however, we suppose that the average number of trips is twenty, our whole number of boats have the capacity to carry 1,800,000 tons per annum. To this, would be added the freights of 4,000 flat boats, carrying, at an average of 75 tons each, 300,000 tons, and bringing the whole annual tonnage to more than two millions, if the steamboats always carried full cargoes, which, however, is far from being the case. But the fact that our boats are capable of carrying that amount of freights, and that they find sufficient business to keep them employed, forms an important link in the series of facts from which we form our estimate.

The actual amount of imports into New Orleans, by the descending trade of the Mississippi, is another important element in this calculation. This we obtain from a list published annually in that city, and obtained from the daily reports of the wharfmasters, of the packages and merchandise actually landed. Taking the year from September 1, 1841, to August 31, 1842, estimating the supposed contents of the packages of which the contents are not actually stated or known, and affixing the present reduced prices, we find that the imports, as stated in this list, amount to $35,764,477 36.

Another mode of deciding the amount of this trade is by reference to the number of sea vessels arriving at the port of New Orleans, which may be ascertained from the reports of the custom-house. These are not at this moment within the reach of your memorialists, but can be commanded by Congress. But we state, on the authority of the newspapers of that city, that the shipping in port at one time in December, 1843, amounted to upwards of 600, all of which are employed in carrying away the staples of the West, while their crews consume a large amount of products, not included in the list of staples. The country which employs 600 ships in bearing off its products by one outlet, while it exports largely in the opposite direction by the lakes, canals and railroads, can be neither small in extent nor inconsiderable in its wealth, industry, and resources.

This list, it will be perceived, includes only the more important articles of commerce; but those which are not embraced in it would amount to a very considerable annual sum. It does not include live stock; yet horses, cattle, sheep and hogs, are shipped to New Orleans in immense numbers; and the amount of poultry, eggs,* vegetables, and other provisions, carried to that market, from the most distant parts of the Mississippi Valley, is great beyond the belief of those not conversant with the facts. New Orleans, it will be recollected, is situated in a southern climate and in a planting country, where but a scanty supply of food is raised for home consumption, and it is a seaport at which the number of vessels congregated at the business season is greater perhaps than at any port in the Union, to say nothing of the large number of steamboats and other river craft; and the supplies of provisions for that city and for the shipping and boats lying there, are floated down the Mississippi. A variety of manufactured articles, also, such as machinery, furniture, and many fabrics of iron, tin, copper, wood, and leather, are not included in the list referred to. Cincinnati alone manufactures sugar mills for the Southern market to the amount of $200,000 per annum, a considerable portion of which are shipped to New Orleans. Nor does that list include any merchandise or produce which is landed without the limits of the municipalities, which would include the cargoes of many steamboats, and a still larger portion of the lading of flat boats. Neither does it include shipments of specie, nor the money carried in various forms on board of steamboats. We arrive, then, at the conclusion that the whole annual value of the arrivals at New Orleans by the river, from descending boats, is not less than fifty millions. After making this estimate, we are gratified to learn, from an authentic source, that an intelligent committee of gentlemen at New Orleans, making an estimate recently from the same data, arrived at the same conclusion.

To this is to be added the trade to that part of the Mississippi called "the coast." The shores of the Mississippi, on both sides, from the mouth of the Ohio downwards, receive supplies of live stock, provisions, machinery, farming implements, cabinet ware, tin ware, saddlery, and a great variety of fabrics, from the more Northern States. The population thus supplied is not less than one million of souls, who receive all the luxuries and most of the necessaries of life by way of these rivers.

A still more important addition is the trade which passes from town to town, and from State to State, throughout the West, and which is independent of what are termed exports or imports. It is difficult to form any adequate idea of this trade; but we, who see it going forward, and witness the gigantic means required to keep it in operation, know that it forms a large item in the estimate of our trade and industry. The population of the Western plain was nearly seven millions at the enumeration made in 1839 and 1840, for the census of 1840, and the trade to which we now allude is that of an enterprising people, whose numbers may now be assumed as fully seven millions, scattered over a continuous, but vast region, embracing a great diversity of soil, climate and products, and affording the materials and facilities for an almost unlimited interchange of commodities. The furs and lead of the northern portion; the iron of Pennsylvania, Ohio, Kentucky, and Tennessee; the grain, salted provisions, and live stock, of the middle region; and the sugar, cotton and tobacco of the South, would alone furnish the elements of a vast internal commerce.

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* It is a fact that one individual at Cincinnati has negotiated drafts through the banks to the annual amount of from $20,000 to $25,000, for the proceeds of *eggs* shipped from that place to New Orleans.

The manufactured articles consumed in the West are now made, to a great extent, within our limits, and transported to every part of our country, and of course the raw materials which are employed in these fabrics enter largely into our freights. At Cincinnati alone, by an accurate enumeration made for the year 1841, it appears that there were 10,647 workmen engaged in mechanical and manufacturing employments, and that the annual value of their products was.............. $17,432,670

And the amount of provisions, in addition to those included in the above estimate, passing through our city from the interiour, was computed at........................ 6,000,000

Making................................ $23,432,670

After deducting the consumption of our city, and the articles which are shipped to New Orleans, there will remain something over 10,000,000 of manufactured articles which are transported to various markets within the Western States, and nearly all of which float on our rivers.

The manufactures of Pittsburgh do not vary greatly in amount from those of Cincinnati, but in the 17,000,000 set down for Cincinnati are included five millions of provisions and other articles which find a market at New Orleans, and which are included in the estimate of the imports of that city, while the labour and capital of Pittsburgh are more largely invested in fabrics of iron, glass, &c., which are distributed widely throughout the West. The shipments, therefore, from both places, to other parts of the West, may be safely stated at twenty-five millions. Louisville and New Albany would furnish five-millions more to this head; and if three points on the Ohio furnish thirty millions of articles to the trade within the Western States, it cannot be an unreasonable calculation to allow, for the raw materials imported into those places, and for the whole of this branch of trade carried on between all other places in the West, including St. Louis, forty millions more, making for the whole of this interiour interchange of commodities an aggregate of seventy millions of dollars, which, added to the fifty millions exported through New Orleans, would give a grand total of one hundred and twenty millions for the annual amount of the productions of the Western States, which are freighted upon the Ohio and Mississippi. This calculation we find corroborated by that of an intelligent committee at St. Louis, which is the more satisfactory, as the vastness of the commerce centering at that point, and the great extent of country through which the operations of her enterprizing citizens are carried, afford them the best data from which to form a deliberate opinion.

To the above amount is to be added the value of the imports of foreign goods. which are floated to their places of destination upon the same waters. And here it may be stated, with sufficient accuracy for the present purpose, that if our exports to New Orleans amount to fifty millions of dollars, our returns from the same point will equal that sum, while the imports from the Eastern cities, by the way of Wheeling, Pittsburgh, and the lakes, embracing a large proportion of all the European goods used in the West, will amount to an additional sum of fifty millions per annum; making in all one hundred millions of imports.

In making these estimates we feel satisfied that, if the statistics of our trade could be ascertained, they would greatly exceed our estimate, and that we may safely assume the aggregate value of the property floating on our great rivers to be two hundred and twenty millions per annum.

The imports into the United States from foreign nations for the year 1841, were $127,916,177, and the exports $121,851,803; and when it is recollected that, in estimating our interiour trade, we have based some of our heaviest items upon data collected three years ago, that all our values are calculated at prices greatly reduced, and that our whole country, with its trade and production, are in a state of rapid progression, it will be readily seen that this interiour commerce is fully equal to our commerce with foreign nations, that its character is equally national, and its protection equally essential to the common benefit and advantage of all the States.

It is also true that, of the foreign goods imported into the United States, the West is the most important consumer; and that, besides our direct contribution to the national revenue in the cash paid for lands, we pay a large proportion of the imposts on foreign merchandise; and that we furnish a larger proportion of the public revenue, than any other part of the Union, while the proportion of the national expenditures made among us have been, comparatively, trifling.

We do not make this comparison invidiously, but in vindication of our just rights. We have seen the treasures of the American people lavished in bountiful appopriations for surveys and defences of the coast, for the improvement of the harbours, for the erection of light-houses, for the building of custom-houses, for astronomical observations, and various other purposes, in aid of the navigation and commerce of the ocean, not only without regret, but with a willingness to contribute freely to whatever may conduce to the general prosperity. But, while sustaining our just proportion of the expenditures for commercial purposes, upon one boundary of the Union, and for the benefit of one branch of the national wealth and enterprise, we claim the appropriation of a like proportion of the public treasure for the protection of another branch of commerce, equally national, and alike important. We claim it as the equitable right of a numerous population, who have built up a great internal empire by their own wealth and labours, and with little aid from the common purse, who defended it during the perils of the war with their blood, and are daily enlarging its boundaries and resources by their industry, their patriotism, and their public spirit. We urge it as the true policy of a wise people, in reference to their own future prosperity. The West is the centre of the Union, the citadel of its power, the great living fountain, whose boundless resources are destined to sustain and enrich the nation. Here will soon exist, the millions who will govern our vast Republic, and the treasures resulting from the labours of an energetic people, which must circulate through every channel of commerce and industry, to the remotest boundaries of our dominion, and to every land to which the American flag shall find access; and here should the nation lay broad and strong, the foundations of its future greatness.

We may fairly refer to the prospective increase of this trade, as it is obvious that it must not only be great, but beyond the compass of any reasonable calculation. The vast amount of unsettled land of the finest quality, and the tide of emigration, which is rapidly pouring in, leave no room to question the speedy growth of the country, or to doubt that its agricultural products will be multiplied in an increasing ratio. Another great interest is growing up among us, which will vastly accelerate this process. Already we manufacture largely. Pittsburgh and Cincinnati, to say nothing of other points, stand prominent among the manufacturing towns of the Union; and nature has scattered over our land, with a profuse munificence, all the elementary principles and materials required for the sustenance of manufacturing industry. The most important of minerals, iron, is found in Tennessee, Kentucky, and Ohio, and doubtless may be found in other places, of the most superiour quality, and admirably adapted to every purpose for which that metal is used. Lead is equally abundant. Cotton, hemp, and wool, are among our staples. The country abounds in water power. The cotton of Mississippi can be delivered at Cincinnati nearly as cheap as at New Orleans; and there is no place in the Union where the labourer can be supported with greater comfort and economy. The pittance which elsewhere will barely procure the necessaries of life, will here spread his tables with its luxuries. With beef and pork at 2 cents per pound, wheat at 70 cents per bushel, corn at 12½ cents per bushel, potatoes at 25 cents per bushel, turkeys at 25 cents, chickens at 8 cents, coal of the finest quality at from 6 to 10 cents per bushel, and wood at $1 50 per cord, we must take this branch of industry from any country having a more sterile and less genial climate. The raw material, the motive power, the provisions, are here; the market for the manufactured article is here, and the labour will come whenever we say that we are ready to give it employment. * * *

"The great corn-growing States are Tennessee, Kentucky, Virginia, Ohio, Indiana, North Carolina, Illinois, Alabama, Georgia. Tennessee being the greatest; in 1839, she raised 44,986,000 bushels. Tennessee, therefore, is the banner State in corn, Ohio in wheat, and New York in oats; while in the aggregate of these three principal grains, Ohio is the banner State of the Union, Pennsylvania rating No. 5 in the list. New England stands very low in the scale, in both corn and wheat, and not very high up in oats. Massachusetts and Connecticut, are both below Delaware, in their product of wheat and corn.

"The crops of 1842, are estimated at 800,000,000 bushels, the whole of which, in price, would average about the average selling price of corn or 40 cents per bushel; which gives the enormous aggregate of $320,000,000, as the worth of the present year's grain crops, exclusive of rye, buckwheat, and barley, which, according to the same calculation, is worth about $16,000,000 more, giving a grand total of $336,000,000. This is indeed a great country, and in nothing greater than its agricultural resources, which are but partially enumerated above, and which, too, have hardly begun to develop themselves."

If there be any truth in figures, we have here abundant evidence that agriculture is the paramount interest of the country, the source of its commerce, the fountain of its wealth. The West is by far the most extensive, fertile, and productive part of the Union, and furnishes the most valuable portion of these products; the vast amount of which corroborate the estimate we have made of the value of our trade. And we add the further inference, if the products of the nation be so great, how important are the great central avenues by which they must find a market!

But even now, the Mississippi is the great arterial highway for the transit of passengers between the extreme points of the Union. At this time, the actual cost of a passage from Philadelphia to New Orleans, upon the mail route, by the railways and roads along the Atlantic seaboard, is, for a single passenger, $94; while the expenses of a single passenger between the same places, by the route of the Western rivers, is but $36. If the great Western route, impeded as it now is by obstructions in the navigation, burdened with tolls, and taxed by exorbitant rates of insurance, is the cheapest channel of intercourse between the North and the South, by more than one-half, can it be doubted that it will become the chief thoroughfare, when it shall have received the improvements of which it is susceptible? Setting aside, then, the safety and advantage of the greater portion of the American people, which we think the Government ought not to disregard, these rivers claim the attention of the National Legislature, as affording the most important link in the chain of post routes, and the most useful military highway within the bounds of the Union. * * * * * * *

Abstract of the boats that have passed, and tolls received, on the Louisville and Portland Canal.

YEARS.	Steamboats.	Flat and keel Boats.	Tons	Amount received.
1831	406	421	76,323	$12,750 77
1832	453	179	70,109	25,756 12
1833	875	710	169,885	60,736 92
1834	938	623	162,000	61,848 17
1835	1,256	355	200,413	80,165 24
1836	1,182	260	182,220	88,343 23
1837	1,501	165	242,374	145,424 69
1838	1,058	438	201,750	121,107 16
1839	1,666	578	300,406	180,364 01
1840	1,231	392	224,841	134,904 55
1841	1,031	309	189,907	113,944 59
1842	983	183	172,755	95,005 10
1843	1,206	88	232,264	107,274 65
	13,756	4,701	2,425,567	1,227,625 20

The upper and lower rapids of the Upper Mississippi present formidable obstructions to the navigation of that noble river, and impede the access to one of the most productive and beautiful regions of the habitable globe. These impediments, consisting of ledges of rock which lie across the river, are extensive, and, during the seasons of low water, render this fine river wholly impassable for freighted boats, which are obliged to be unladen and lighted over the rapids; and causing the expense of freight to increase by double and three-fold at such seasons. Yet they are of such a character as to be susceptible of removal, at a comparatively small expense. Above these rapids, the river is navigable to the falls of St. Anthony, distant from St. Louis, nine hundred miles. In their vicinity, and beyond them, lies a wide expanse of country, embracing a large portion of Illinois, Iowa, and Wisconsin, of incomparable fertility, and inexhaustible resources—a region of prairies, teeming with vegetative power, and ready cleared to the hand of the husbandman. Equally adapted to the growth of wheat, the rearing of cattle, and the production of wool, this country, already, though in its infancy, affords a large surplus for exportation; and so vast is the extent of its rich lands, that the increase of its staples is greatly beyond conception. The country, over which, thirteen years ago, the militia of Illinois chased the bands of Black Hawk, and in which the Sacs, the Sioux, and the Winnebagoes, contended for mastery, furnished during the past year the freights for 244 steamboats, and 55 keels.

In the same region are lead mines, in prosperous operation, which supply annually, to commerce, 40,000,000 pounds of lead, included in the above estimate, worth $1,000,000, and supposed to be capable of supplying that metal in sufficient quantities to meet the demands of the civilized world; while the copper mines, recently opened, are also becoming valuable. To show further the productiveness of a country so recently a wilderness, and still only known in that character to most of the American people, we state that in 1840, nine counties in the southern part of Wisconsin produced 197,225 bushels of wheat, 25,966 head of cattle, 45,136 hogs, and 7,564 tons of lead. If such are the products of a small and remote district of a newly settled land, how prolific must be the broad region in which it lies? How impossible to calculate the wealth of the Great West, when single counties estimate their products by such imposing figures?

It appears from data, kept at St. Louis, that the navigation of the Upper Mississippi was clear of ice, in 1841, eight months; in 1842, eight months and seven days; and in 1843, seven months and eleven days. As the navigation of this vast region is closed, by the immutable laws of nature, during four months of the year, the duty of the Government is the more imperative to keep it open during the other eight months, into which all the business done upon its waters must be crowded.

The arrivals of boats, from the Upper Mississippi, at St. Louis, during the last three years, were as follows:

1841	143 steamboats,	108 keel boats.
1842	195 "	88 "
1843	244 "	55 "

The emigration to this favoured region is great. The completion of the Illinois and Michigan canal, which may now be looked for at an early period, and the connexion between the Wisconsin and Fox rivers, which cannot be long delayed, will give it peculiar attractions; and, as the proprietor of by far the greater part of the domain, *the Government* is invited, by interest as well as by duty, to open the navigable channels of the country, and thus accelerate its settlement, and promote the sale of her own lands.

But we advocate the improvement of this river, as well as the Illinois, the Wabash, and the Ohio, with the more confidence, as two of them are already connected with the lakes by canals, and the other two will soon be similarly connected, and they are thus emphatically great national highways. connecting the North and the South, the East and the West, and bringing distant, and apparently discordant interests, into harmonious co-operation.

The bars in the Ohio may be classed: 1st, into those formed of hard and apparently permanent gravel; 2d, shifting, or loose gravel; and, 3d, shifting sand-bars. These bars have been minutely surveyed on several occasions, by officers of the United States, whose reports furnish all the information which may be desirable in regard to them, and preclude the necessity of any detailed description in this memorial. It may be remarked, however, that while these bars present serious obstacles to navigation in low water, they seem also to serve a valuable purpose in another respect. The Ohio, through its whole course, has, in general, a gentle and equable current. In low water, the river is resolved into a series of ripples or dams, with extensive basins of slack-water between them, varying in depth from two to five fathoms. It would seem as if nature had formed these bars or dams, for the purpose of collecting the water above them, and thus forming a succession of navigable pools. * * *

Thus far the Memorial, to which we add the estimated productive industry of the nine States bordering on these mighty waters, to the improvement of which the attention of Congress is called, taken from Professor Tucker's valuable work, having for its basis the census of 1840; also, the state of education in universities and academies, students, &c.

The signers of the Memorial are, James Hall, chairman, John C. Vaughan, E. S. Haines, Paul Anderson, M. T. Williams, Robert Buchanan, Geo. Carlisle, Lewis Whiteman, T. J. Halderman, E. D. Mansfield, J. G. Woodin, S. W. Hartshorne, P. Rogers, Joseph Pierce, sen., Jedediah Banks, Henry Hayes, secretary.

Productive Industry of States bordering on the Western Waters.

Mississippi.		
Agriculture	$26,494,565	
Manufactures	1,585,790	
Commerce	1,453,686	
The forest	205,297	
		$29,739,338
Louisiana.		
Agriculture	$22,851,375	
Manufactures	4,087,655	
Commerce	7,868,898	
Mines	165,280	
The forest	71,751	
		35,044,959
Arkansas.		
Agriculture	$5,086,757	
Manufactures	1,145,309	
Commerce	420,635	
The forest	217,469	
Mines	18,225	
		6,888,395
Tennessee.		
Agriculture	$31,660,180	
Manufactures	2,477,193	
Commerce	2,239,478	
Mines	1,371,331	
The forest	225,179	
		37,973,361
Missouri.		
Agriculture	$10,484,263	
Manufactures	2,360,708	
Commerce	2,349,245	
The forest	448,552	
Mines	187,669	
		15,830,444
Kentucky.		
Agriculture	$29,226,545	
Manufactures	5,092,353	
Commerce	2,580,575	
Mines	1,539,919	
The forest	184,799	
		38,624,191
Ohio.		
Agriculture	$37,802,101	
Manufactures	14,588,091	
Commerce	8,050,316	
Mines	2,442,682	
The forest	1,013,063	
Fisheries	10,525	
		63,906,778
Indiana.		
Agriculture	$17,247,743	
Manufactures	3,676,705	
Commerce	1,866,155	
The forest	660,836	
Mines	80,000	
Fisheries	1,192	
		23,532,631
Illinois.		
Agriculture	$13,701,466	
Manufactures	3,243,981	
Commerce	1,498,425	
Mines	293,272	
The forest	249,841	
		18,981,985

Recapitulation.

Agriculture	$194,584,895	Mines	6,098,378
Manufactures	38,227,785	Fisheries	11,717
Commerce	2[illegible]22,413		
The forest	$[illegible],276,794	Total	$270,521,982

Population, according to the Census of 1840.

Missouri	383,702	Kentucky	779,828
Louisiana	352,411	Mississippi	375,654
Arkansas	97,574	Indiana	685,866
Tennessee	829,210	Illinois	476,183
Ohio	1,519,467		
Total			5,499,895

State of Education, &c.

STATES.	Universities and Colleges.	Students.	Acad. and Gramm'r Schools.	Scholars.	Primary Schools.	Scholars.	Scholars at public charge.	Illiterate.
Missouri	6	495	47	1,926	642	16,788	526	19,457
Kentucky	10	1,419	116	4,906	952	24,641	429	40,018
Ohio	18	1,717	73	4,310	5,186	218,609	51,812	35,394
Indiana	4	322	54	2,946	1,521	48,189	6,929	38,100
Illinois	5	311	42	1,967	1,241	34,876	1,683	27,502
Mississippi	7	454	71	2,553	382	8,236	107	8,360
Louisiana	12	989	52	1,995	179	3,573	1,190	4,861
Arkansas			8	300	113	2,614		6,567
Tennessee	8	492	152	5,539	983	25,090	6,907	58,531
	70	6,199	615	26,442	11,199	382,616	69,583	238,790

TWO MONTHS IN THE COPPER REGION.

It was on the 14th day of August, 1845, that our party went on board a light and well-built yawl, of about four tons, moored in the still water above the rapids of the St. Mary's river. We were venturing upon an experiment. We could not learn that such a craft had ever put forth alone upon the waters of Lake Superiour, and our intention was, to follow the south coast as far as the season would permit. For hundreds of years this lake had been navigated by the bark canoe, and parties were setting off every day for Copper Harbour, La Pointe, and other remote points, in these apparently frail vessels, but which the experience of centuries had demonstrated to be the safest conveyance known. The Mackinaw boat had long traversed these shores, transporting goods to the Fur Company's posts, and returning with furs.

These long, narrow, flat-bottom boats, carry a heavy burden, go well before the wind, and are easily drawn ashore. The bark canoe, as well as the Mackinaw boat, has no keel, and the safety of both consists in being able to make a harbour of every sand beach, in case of a storm. The expert voyager, has a kind of second sight in regard to weather, smelling a storm while it is yet a great way off. It is only when a great saving may be made, and the weather is perfectly fair, that he ventures to leave the vicinity of the shore, and cross from point to point, in the open sea. These passages are called " traverses ;" and such is the suddenness with which storms arise, that a traverse of 10 or 15 miles, even in fair weather, and while every indication is favourable, is regarded as a hazardous operation. Some daring boatmen make them of 30 miles.

Of course, the birch canoe and the Mackinaw boat, being without keels, cannot sail upon the wind. Our yawl, with a keel of four inches, having nine men and about a ton of provisions aboard, sank about 16 inches in the water. She was provided with a cotton square-sail, containing 40 square yards, and had row-locks for six oars. How she would row—how she would sail, and how she would brave the storm, we could only surmise, and the surmises were rather against the little vessel.

The portage, over which goods now pass, from the level of Lake Huron to that of Lake Superiour, is a flat, wet,marshy piece of land, about three-fourths of a mile across. To the westward, the country appears to be low and swampy, as far as the view extends; which, however, is limited by the thick timber, principally spruce, pine,white cedar, birch, and hemlock. But a walk of one mile, in that direction, brought me to a low eminence, rising out of a cedar swamp, composed of masses of rolled granite and other primitive rocks, in size from a small pebble to a diameter of ten feet. The timber among them had been lately blackened by a raging fire. The trunks of these charred trees, some standing erect, some leaning against others, and many prostrate on the rocks, contrasted hideously with the white and nakedness of those immense granite boulders, which covered the surface.

On the north and east, in the province of Canada, a high range of mountains extends, in each direction, out of sight. They were first visible at the head of St. Joseph's island, having the jagged outline of trap-rocks. The view from the low ground, on the American side, towards the high land across the river, is extensive and gratifying. In front is the river, a mile broad, and the rapids. At the opposite shore, the establishment of the Hudson's Bay Company, half commercial, half military, with a stockade and white houses. For several miles down the river, there are houses on the bank, and farms extending back, at irregular distances, up the mountains. Here the traders, voyagers, missionaries, factors, Indian agents, and Indians, reside promiscuously—such is the foreground of the view. Behind and beyond rise the mountain ranges, in that pure atmosphere perfectly distinct at the distance of twenty miles.

Our tents were struck at 7 o'clock, A. M., and the journey began. There were other parties scattered about the open space at the warehouse; some had regular tents, some sheltered themselves under a broad piece of India rubber cloth, stretched over a pole like the roof of a house. One party had a conical tent, with an upright pole in the centre, the canvass spread out around the foot; and another, in default of other covering, lay snoring under a cotton bedtick, stretched across the bushes. A party of surveyors were encamped near the landing, from a cruise of three months in the interiour. This party had run a tier of townships, from Mackinaw, northward, into sections of one mile square. These men encamped a few days at this place, to recruit their tattered garments, of which only the shreds and fragments remained. In enterprises of this sort, it is only by physical energy, and great powers of endurance, that the contractor can realize any thing from the prices allowed by Government for its original surveys. They provision themselves, by carrying all on their backs, from the depots on the shore. The thickets through which they pursue their work, week after week, and month after month, would be declared absolutely impracticable to a person not trained in that school, especially in the vicinity of the lake. No beast of burden could pass without bridges, even in case a pathway should be cut through the matted evergreens that cover the ground. To make a path for a horse or mule, would consume more time and labour per mile than the survey itself. There is a hardy class of Frenchmen and half-breeds, cousin-german to the Canadian voyageur, called "packers;" they were bred in the service of the Fur Companies, to carry goods from the nearest landing to the trading post, and return with a pack of furs. The surveyors found these packers indispensable to their operations. They will carry from 50 to 70 pounds, and can travel along in the recesses of the forest, without fear of losing their way.

They are patient, cheerful, and obedient; in fact, they are on land what the voyageur is upon the water. His capacity for food corresponds with his ability to endure fatigue, and his great care is to secure it in sufficient quantity. He makes, with a little instruction, an excellent axeman and chainman. If circumstances prevent a return to the camp, or the rendezvous, he can lie down at the foot of a tree, sleep till daybreak, and resume his tramp without complaint.

The party which joined our encampment here, was a subject for Catlin, the Indian sketcher. More hale, hearty, and jovial fellows, never broke into the limits of civilization. The northern atmosphere had tinged their cheeks with red, they were all young and active men, glowing with that high animal-life, that extreme buoyancy of spirits, which is a stranger to the inhabitants of cities—to those who toss upon feather beds, and live upon soups and comfits.

This rugged company, full of fun and frolic, with beards of three months' cultivation, in red flannel shirts, and fustian trowsers in shreds, white beaver hats, less the border, some in shoes, some in moccasins, and some in boots, from all of which various toes were looking out, surprised even the worthy burghers of the Sault. The Sault St. Marie has been a trading post more than two hundred years. The good Catholics, *Ramboult* and *Jonges*, preached repentance to the *Nodowessies*, or Sioux, on this spot, in 1641, whom the French traders immediately followed. Here it may be said the borders of civilization have been fixed for two centuries. In consequence, a mixed race has arisen, neither the representatives of refinement nor of barbarism, but of a medium state. It may well be supposed, that a band of jolly fellows, habited as we have described these hardy surveyors, axemen, chainmen, and packers, would not attract here that attention which they would in New-York, or in London: But they appeared to be objects of no little interest and curiosity to the worthy inhabitants of the Sault, especially as some of them were so disfigured that their old friends did not recognise them.

Looking back from the water, upon the collection of tents and lodges, we had a view of the group at one glance, and the scene from the new point of observation suggested ideas that had not presented themselves while we formed a part of it. Around some of the camp-fires were gentlemen from the Atlantic shores, with genteel caps and surtouts, shivering in the raw wind of the morning. Poor fellows! impelled by the hope of wealth to be found in the copper region, they had rushed, at steamboat rates, to the extremity of navigation, of taverns, and permanent habitations.

The reality of copper exploration had now commenced. A night of drizzling rain and fog had been passed, in a cold tent, on wet ground. Among them were seated voyageurs and half-breeds, as happy as a plenty of grub could make them. The raw wind was no annoyance to them, so long as there was a flint and steel to start a fire, and a plentiful stock of provisions. Between the cap and surtout, and the flannel shirt and canvass trousers, was every grade of men represented by a grade of habiliments.

In front of this motley collection of persons and things, lay the frame of a large schooner, on which fifty workmen were laying the plank—all its timbers and lumber brought from the lower lakes; and in the open level space beyond, along a track cleared through the swamp, stood the spars of a vessel, advancing on solid land towards the basin above the falls. This labour and expense of bringing vessels over land, or the timber to construct them with, is unavoidable. As far as known, there is not ship timber enough on Lake Superiour to build a schooner.

The rock which causes the rapids is a close, fine-grained, red sandstone, in thin layers, pitching to the northward. There has been much diversity of opinion among geologists, about the geological position of this rock. As I proceed, I shall again notice this rock, and its analogue, which occupies almost the entire southern coast of the lake.

The 1st *principal meridian* of the U. States surveys, comes out on the waters of St. Marie's, at the ship yard, just above the rapids. This is a *true meridian*, run with great care from the *base line*, which is about 12 miles north of Detroit. The 1st meridian is about 30 miles west of Detroit, and passing up through the peninsula of Michigan, crosses the straits near Mackinaw. By the Government system of rectangular co-ordinates, referred always to a given base and meridian, an observer knows his exact position, wherever he may be, in the surveyed portions of the U. States. Every township is six miles square, every section one mile square, every quarter section half a mile square. Every section *corner* has permanent marks on some adjacent tree, which gives the situation of that corner from its proper base and meridian. I make this explanation, to give light upon terms that I shall use hereafter. In traversing the American shore of Lake Superiour, we found, as far as the Porcupine Mountains, west of the Ontanagon, that the surveyors had preceded us. During the present and the past year they had extended the township lines to this distance along the coast, and for a part of this distance had subdivided the townships into sections. These surveys had been carried to different distances, interiour. From the base, near Detroit, numbering northward, St. Marie's is in township No. 47 North, range No. 1 East. But our point of embarkation was on the west side of the meridian, in town 47 *North*, range 1 West, or 282 miles north of the base line.

We are now fairly under way, and shall be able to keep our reckoning. The river expands, as we ascend against a very gentle current; the shores are low and swampy, or sandy, and covered with stunted pines. In an hour and a half, so easily did our boat row, we were at "Point Aux Pins," on the British side. At ten o'clock, we were on shore at "Gros Cap," looking up a spar, and clambering the red granite ridge, which here projects towards the American shore—the extremity of that range of mountains in view from the rapids, to the eastward. From the height of 500 feet, we could see the continuation of this range, westward, into Michigan, until its summits were lost in the mist. The eastern extremity of the American range is "Point Iroquois," nearly opposite "Gros Cap," where the Chippeways, by their ancestors, fought a great battle with the Iroquois, long before the French came into these waters. The range is called the "Tequamenon Mountains," overlooking for some 20 miles a deep bay, known as the Tequamenon Bay. The waters about "Gros Cap" are so clear that the bottom is seen from 50 to 60 feet below the surface.

Before leaving this inhospitable crag, we set fire to a windfall of about two years of age, and consequently in a fine state for a conflagration. This was not done through any republican contempt of the British Queen, or her territory, but from pure benevolence towards subsequent travellers exploring "Gros Cap." It lay between the ridge and the bay, in a swamp so thickly covered with prostrate trees that one might go a quarter of a mile on them without touching the ground, unless an unlucky misstep should precipitate him into the mud beneath. At one o'clock, we were at "Isle Parisien," a low island, five miles long, cooking a dinner, and procuring a better spar.

We succeeded here so well in fitting our sail, that the traverse of 15 miles to "White-Fish Point," ordinarily a hazardous voyage, was safely and pleasantly made, a little after dark; and the wind, though light, being still fair, we ran into the lake without landing, and made along the shore. We were now upon the largest body of fresh water on the globe; called by the Indians, *Kitche-goming;* by the French, *Superieur*, or Upper, and corrupted by the English into "Superiour."

The moon shone dimly through a heavy sky, the water was merely ruffled by a warm southern breeze, and in the distance the flame of the burning windfall shone conspicuously above the mountains. On the Michigan side, several large tracts of burning timber were seen on the hills, at the head of Tequamenon Bay. It was determined to proceed as long as the wind continued favourable, but in a short time it failed altogether, and we went ashore at half-past eleven, and encamped. The ground here lay in a series of low sand ridges, with scattered pines. Distance from the Sault, 45 miles.

At sunrise every thing was on board, and the sail spread before a fair wind. Along the beach, the surf has piled a ridge of water-washed granitic gravel, five to six feet high, the deep water holding out quite to the shore. In coasting, in an open boat, the traveller must resign all hope of regularity of hours, of meals, and of sleep. His sovereign is the weather: when that is calm, he may proceed with the "white ash queen," as the sailors say: when the wind is ahead, he can take his ease—provided he is safe on shore! but, when it is fair, he must always be before it. The prevailing winds along this shore are from the west, at this season; and, consequently, they are ahead as you go up the lake.

Breakfast on board, upon cold beans, cold pork, and hard bread.

Towards evening, the wind came so strong ahead as to oblige us to put into the mouth of "Two-Heart" river, a stream sufficiently deep to float a large vessel inside the bar, but not deep enough to carry the yawl with her load. Of the streams discharging into the lake from the south, only two or three are known with open mouths. At most of them it was necessary to lighten the boat and haul her over, with about the same labour and discomfort as though there was no channel; but once inside, a quiet harbour was always found. These mouths are so completely sealed up, and concealed by sand ridges, that persons may pass them within ten rods of shore, and not discover that a creek is there.

The shore is composed of low monotonous sand ridges; with stunted pines. The bluff is from 50 to 80 feet high, presenting a stratified edge of sand, inclined gently to the east, not exceeding 10 feet in a mile. The ridges run from the interiour nearly perpendicular to the direction of the shore.

We passed several fishing huts, now deserted, with a plenty of empty salt barrels and fish scales scattered around.

A little east of the mouth of the creek we observed, in toiling up, several picketed enclosures, among the pines, on a beautiful ridge. They were Indian graves, thus strongly guarded to keep out the beasts of prey. There are those who doubt whether the Indian is susceptible to the delights of taste—whether he enjoys a bright morning, a clear and moonlit night, a mountain, a vale, or a beautiful river. Was it mere accident that placed this burying-ground upon so enchanting a spot? The lake is about 40 rods distant in front, and about as many feet below the site of the graves. Through the open trees you see its waters, as plainly as if there was no intervening timber—while the shade of its branches is perpetual upon the spot. Even the lowest ripple on the beach reaches the ear as distinctly as the angriest roar of the waves. Every breath of air that moves to and from the lake—the evening and the morning breeze, as well as the northern tempest, plays audibly upon the long and evergreen leaves of these ancient pines. At the head of each grave is a flat shingle or board, with emblems, painted in red, or rudely carved with a knife. On one, there are three red cross-bows and two human figures—representing a man and a woman, (doubtless a husband and wife,) with clasped hands. On the reverse, a bear—probably the sign or token of the deceased. On the top, three eagle quills. Some have crosses—indicating that a good Catholic sleeps below.

At an early hour on the morning of the 16th we got out of "Two-Heart" river through a light sea, determined to try the "ash breeze" against the west wind; but, after a couple of miles hard rowing, the regular breeze prevailed: we could no longer make headway, and put about.

Notwithstanding the sand-flies and moschetoes, it was comfortable to lie down once more upon the green grass and fragrant wintergreens of that shore. The weather was warm and heavy. Some wandered through the sand-hills and stumps; some, wrapped in blankets as a defence against the flies, sought in vain for sleep; others, with the fishhook and artificial fly, rowed up the creek in pursuit of speckled trout. A good dinner and supper of these fish was the result of the expedition.

At 8 P. M. the wind became more favourable, and the boat was headed up the coast. At 10 the weather became thick, and running ashore at random, we had the first trial at hauling our craft out of the water by main force. She proved to be as easily handled on land as a Mackinaw of the same capacity; only requiring more care. In camp, we turned her over—one gunwale resting on the sand, about thirty feet from the surf; the other set upon sticks, after the fashion of a trap. Under this we all crawled, spread our blankets, and *some* of the party went to sleep.

Mr. J. R. Dorr, of Detroit, the principal of the expedition, had seen something of this kind of life. Mr. D. P. Bushnell, of the same place, had long been Indian agent at La Pointe; and was, of course, familiar with the country and this mode of travelling. Another gentleman, well known on the lakes for his wit and vivacity, qualities that generally attend an excitable temperament, not being accustomed to tents, boats, and camps, found it rather uncomfortable. The sand, so soft and yielding to the foot, was as hard as a rock to the bones. The grinding of the gravel, thrown incessantly about by the waves, gave out a grating sound that had no tendency to sooth a man to rest; especially one who had been accustomed to the quiet of the third story of a boarding-house. Besides, there was some chance of the props giving out, and the trap springing upon the legs, arms, and bodies projecting from beneath. *Mike*, an old soldier who officiated as cook; *Martin*, a sailor just from the whaling grounds of the Northwest Coast; Charley, a giant from the Low Countries, and Patrick, the other hand, seemed to pay no attention to the hard bed, the cold wind, the noisy waves, or to the doubtful props. A sprightly young clerk of the company, fresh from the counter, though swollen and tormented by the poison of the sand-flies, took the matter like a veteran, and slept like an opium-eater.

About noon the next day we passed the "Grand Marais," a Bay 40 miles from White-Fish Point, with six feet water on the bar, and a fine harbour.

Two men had left St. Marie's the day before we did, in a small, but neat and clinker-built boat, with two masts and a wide keel. They were wholly unacquainted with the difficulties that lay before them; yet one of them, by the name of *Axtel*, had been exposed in the same boat 48 hours to the fury of a Lake Michigan storm, and therefore felt a confidence in fate. Neither of them had been on Lake Superiour, and therefore knew little of its harbours, rocks, and storms. Their supplies were salt pork and bread, their furniture a camp-kettle.

Passing Grand Marais, before a smart breeze, we saw their fire in the harbour, and shortly their sail, coming up astern. Here the low, regular, dreary shore of sand, suddenly changed to a lofty wall of the same material, rising from the water's edge, as steep as it will lie, to the height of 400 feet. For 20 miles back, there had been seen near the water's edge a stratum of *pebbles*, inclined, with the sandy stratum above it, to the eastward. Now the strata of sand rest on a bed of *clay*, with the same inclination, but only a few feet in the mile. The *Grand Sable* struck us with the more force, because of the sudden transition, from a low, uninteresting shore, to a bold, lofty, regular scarp, four times the height of the tallest trees. But there were upon this Sable no trees or other vegetation, either on the face towards the lake, which was nearly perpendicular, or upon the summit—all was one black pile of sand; yet so clear, so regularly stratified, and so beautifully variegated, by colours, white and red, that the prospect was not dreary, but rather sublime. Imagine a straight wall of pure sand, four miles long, and four hundred feet high; the base lashed by a rough sea, its top enveloped in a heavy mist, through which rounded hillocks of white wind-blown drift occasionally rise, as the eye reaches, mile after mile, over the country behind. To me, this sight was more grand and curious than the Pictured Rocks. Whence came this mass of sand? Its upper portion has apparently been moved about by winds; its lower portions appear to be too solid to be thus moved. Was it not in remote ages, like the low sands we have passed, but extending much further into the lake. A prevailing north wind, with sufficient force to move the sand at the surface, would overcome vegetation, and, like the current of a river, transport the particles incessantly in one direction. By this means the sand would pile higher and higher, and the lake always encroaching at the foot, would increase the height of the bluff shore.

The "Sable" overlies, on the west, a variegated sand rock, coarse grained, and easily broken, pitching slightly to the eastward. This is the first rock west of White-Fish Point. The stratification is imperfect, the colour, an irregular mixture of grey and red.

Turning one of the rocky points west of the "Grand Sable," a stiff gale from the west put an end to further progress, and gave warning of a storm. The only expedient in such an emergency, is, to beach the boat, and draw her out of the reach of the waves. It is an operation not always agreeable; because, while loaded, she cannot be run upon dry ground; and, to be unloaded, the goods must be taken through the water to the shore. On this occasion the wetting process had been gone through with, two hours before, during a heavy fall of rain.

Our baggage was scarcely safe on land when the wind blew furiously, and our two friends in the sail-boat appeared, endeavouring to make the shore, as the sea had risen so much, that a landing was at this moment not only uncomfortable, but a little hazardous.

As the storm increased, our fires began to burn brightly. Near the boats, was a little dell, sheltered by a low ridge of sand, where our tents were pitched, and all made dry and comfortable, while the gale heightened into a tempest.

On the next day, progress was impracticable, and being well provided, we determined to give an entertainment. Our friends were invited at 1, P. M. They had bean soup, boiled ham, tea and coffee, bread, and *pickles*. The quantity consumed, probably exceeded that of ordinary dinners, as much as it does at the annual meals of the Aldermen of New York, and London. As to style, there were tin cups and pewter platters, knives and spoons. For tables, there were the knees of the guests and a spare box; forseats, camp stools and bundles. The entertainment continued with great glee about two hours, and passed off with as much sociability and mirth as though it had been given at the Astor.

After the first hour had been spent in the enjoyment of this cheer, our guests began to refuse dishes, by way of politeness; but the ex-Indian agent put all such hesitation aside, by relating what he had done and seen in the Indian country. There was one example of an Indian eating half a bushel of wild rice at a meal. Another, of a half-breed, who was sent out to bring in a deer that had been killed some miles from the post. The half-breed lost his way, and slept in the woods one night. The next day, in the afternoon, he came in without the deer. He was asked where he had left it. "Ugh! got him—do you s'pose a man is to starve."

One thing is certain—in this high latitude, with its pure and healthy climate, where the enervating effects of heat upon digestion are unknown, men may eat with impunity what would be fatal to them at the south.

In commemoration of the feast, a little trout brook, which empties there, was named "Pickle Creek," and the names of the party, neatly carved on a neighbouring birch.

One of our guests is the son of a former sheriff in Canada, who made the journey from St. Marie's to Fort William, by land, in the winter of 1816. The object of this trip, through a region so rough and forbidding, in the severity of the cold season, was the execution of a warrant upon Lord Selkirk, then in possession of that post. Fort William is situated about the middle of the north shore, nearly opposite the east end of Isle Royal. The warrant was issued from the King's Bench, and had reference to some of those acts of violence that occurred between the "Hudson's Bay Company" and the "Northwest Company." The sheriff, whose name was *Smith*, at last reached the fort, with ten men. Selkirk professed to hold, and to fight, under the ancient chartered rights of his ancestors; and when Smith presented his authority for the arrest, Selkirk fell back on his charter. Smith offered the authority of the King's Bench; Selkirk claimed to be outside of all civil jurisdiction, and replied: "If you do not believe in my charter, here is my authority," pointing to about 50 men, who were ready to do battle in such emergencies. He continued: "Instead of my being your prisoner, you are mine. I will treat you and your men well, yet you must take quarters in the block-house till I leave here."

Accordingly, the sheriff was obliged to remain in custody about five months, until the opening of the season.

The timber about Pickle Creek is black and white birch, a few stunted white maples, white and yellow pine, mountain ash, spruce, balsam of fir, balsam of spruce, white cedar, and hemlock; none of it large enough to be valuable.

The next morning at 4, with a fair wind, we were on the water, having Grand Island in sight, at daybreak. This island is high and bold, like the Pictured Rocks, which lie on the mainland opposite. It bears sugar maple in profusion, and has one family (that of Mr. Williams) residing upon it; he is a thrifty farmer and trader. The variegated sandstone, as well as I could determine, here plunges to the west, and passes under the strata which compose the Pictured Rocks. The lamented Dr. Houghton regarded the red or variegated sandstone of Lake Superiour, as older than the "old red sandstone." The Pictured Rock stratum he considered the equivalent of the "Pottsdam sandstone" of the New York Reports. This rock comes to the shore, about twenty miles in length, and has a thickness of at least five hundred feet. Grand Island is an outlier on the north.

The following is a section from the water's edge upward, taken by the eye, at the highest point, which, according to Captain Bayfield, is 300 feet.

Geological Section of the Pictured Rocks.

	Thickness.
1st—Soft conglomerate,	10 to 20 feet.
2d—Compact sandstone,	60 to 80 "
3d—Gray sand rock, (soft and wearing,)	30 to 50 "
4th—Yellowish green sand rock, containing sulphur, and easily dissolved,	80 to 100 "
5th—Soft and imperfectly stratified sand rock, with septaria of sandstone, and ironstone,	20 to 50 "
6th—Drift and sand to surface,	10 to 50 "

It will now be readily seen, how the perpendicular faces of rock are caused, which have given this passage such a frightful aspect. Vertical walls of smooth, gray rock, 200 to 300 feet high, passing to unknown depths beneath the surface; in places worn into large caverns, in others, coloured in fantastic, yet grim figures, half real and half imaginary, yellow, green, and black; shapes neither animal, nor in the likeness of any thing else that is natural, but so near the natural, as to give rise to the idea of monsters, griffins, and genii. Such are the Pictured Rocks, before which the Indian thinks of his Manitou, and the Frenchman crosses himself with profound reverence.

The soft conglomerate (No. 1) yields to the incessant wear of the wave, which, rolling from deep water, strikes with great power. When the undermining process has extended a few yards, the hard stratum next above falls, and with it the superincumbent mass. Much of this dissolves away in time, leaving the fragments of No. 2 visible, in great blocks, at various depths beneath the surface. The colours are furnished by the dripping solutions of iron, in the state of oxyde, carbonate, and sulphate; by moss growing upon the face of the rocks, and probably by the green carbonate of copper. The niches, caves, and angles, follow naturally from a rock of different degrees of hardness, acted upon by the same disintegrating force. At the mouth of a creek, where the trail from "Bay De Noquet," (called *Bodenock*,) on Lake Michigan, strikes this lake, there is a hard silicious slate, approaching to flint, dark in colour, and imperfectly stratified. This bed, which appears to be limited, lies low, near the water.

Passing these dreaded rocks, the principal harbour of Grand Island, and the farm of Mr. Williams, come in view. For refuge in bad weather, this island must, in future time, be of great advantage to vessels. It has several large and deep harbours, and of itself forms a good lee, in almost all weather. On the mainland, opposite Mr. Williams's, is a solitary cabin, the agency of the American Fur Company.

Between Grand Island, on the west, and the shore at Train River Point, there are two low islands, that appear to be formed of the red sandstone. At the point, this rock forms the shore, and has a rapid dip to the eastward, say 150 feet in the mile; evidently running under the Pictured Rocks, and therefore an older formation. Here it enclosed occasional pebbles of quartz, agates, and fine-grained sandstone.

The wind, which had been fair all day, on turning the point came strong ahead, against which we had hard pulling about five miles, to the mouth of Train river. Our craft proved to be a fast sailer, easily beating the little clinker of our friends, before the wind; but those dauntless fellows did not rest, until, at the end of the day, they drew her into the same harbour with us. Train river, like many others, has deep water inside, but only a few inches at the entrance. Wherever we set foot on shore, the remains of previous travellers were seen. Here, the poles of many Indian lodges were standing, and the bones of a bear lay around, indicative of a feast. There were, also, dwarf cherries and whortleberries.

Passing out of the bay, in the morning, a range of mountains were visible, the ends presenting themselves near at hand, and the principal range extending westward, towards Chocolate river. From the outline, I conjecture that they are composed of primitive rocks. At the shore, the strata are still the variegated sandstone, very much tilted, with thin beds of shale interstratified; apparent dip, to the northward. Making a long traverse from Train River Bay, at 5, P. M., we entered a magnificent harbour, between projecting points of granite rocks; and coasting along inside some islands, soon saw that there was a very safe and spacious shelter for shipping still further inland, accessible in any wind, with deep and quiet water inside. This bay is sometimes called Presque Isle. It commences about two miles north of the mouth of "Riviere des Morts," six or seven miles northwest of Chocolate river, and extends to Granite Point.

Mr. Dorr being quite ill, our party remained a day. The boat anchored in a quiet nook of the harbour. Granite rocks were projecting on all sides, through the red sandstone, scorched and whitened at the points of contact. In the rear, were seen rugged mountains, covered with evergreens. This was regarded as the commencement of the copper region. Accordingly, myself and Martin sallied forth in the morning, to spy out the mineral wealth of the spot. On the south point of the bay, to our great satisfaction, we discovered a piece of green carbonate, about the size of a pea, in a hard, green stone trap; but a little further on, found, also, evidences of prior occupation, in a log cabin covered with birch bark, a small patch of chopped land, and a pen made of poles, which enclosed two or three hills of potatoes, and some stalks of green peas. Pursuing our way along the shore, to Dead Men's river, we found a permanent fishing establishment, and two comfortable houses, now deserted and locked up.

The country adjacent, for two or three miles, is low and swampy, with sand ridges between the swales; and at the mouth of the river, heaps of granite rocks. It was soon evident that the surveyors had been this way, and that very recently. At the south point of the bay, was a stake, on the dividing line between sections Nos. 1 and 2, town 48 north, range 25 west; showing that we were one town, or six miles north of St. Mary's, and 25 towns, or 150 miles west.

In making the traverse from Train River Bay, to Presque Isle Bay, a singular object was visible to the right, long before the shore opposite to it came in sight. Under the effect of refraction, it rose and fell, dilated and contracted, changing continually from a tall spire to a flat belt of land. By the glass, it was seen to be almost destitute of trees, and Mr. Bushnell began to regard it as one of the peaks of Point Kewena. There is no map of this lake, upon which a navigator can rely, except a British one, from the survey of Capt. Bayfield, (Royal Navy,) made about 20 years ago. We had what purported to be a copy, but soon found that it was not a true one. We could neither recognise from it, the harbour, the points, nor the rivers, where we were. At Chocolate river the coast, from a westerly course, makes almost a right angle to the northward; but at that time, whether we were at Chocolate, or Dead Men's river, we could not tell.

The isolated object seen in the north proved to be the "Granite Rock," situated about 10 miles from shore, 50 to 80 feet in height, and a few acres in extent. Along this shore, huge masses of this *recent* granite rise through the water, and may be seen in its clear depths. From the section stake just mentioned the Granite Rock bears north, 10 or 12 miles distant. It must not be confounded with "Stanard's Rock," which is in the track of vessels from Point Kewena to St. Mary's, 30 miles from land. That these granite rocks are more recent than the sedimentary sandstone which rests upon them, is evident from observation. The metamorphic rocks have *protruded through* the sandstone, distorting and breaking up the strata. If the red, or variegated sandstone, had been deposited *after* the upheaval, this disturbance would not have been visible, nor would there have been seen the discolouration and semi-vitrification at the junction, or contact of the two formations.

The mountainous country, which here comes quite to the lake, extends in east and west ranges, beyond the sources of the Huron river and Kewena Bay, and appears to have been formed by the same volcanic effort. The spacious and beautiful harbour where we lay, is formed by four granitic islands, three of them now connected with the shore by sand-bars, forming as many " Presque Isles."

Our next day's sail ended at a small creek, represented on the map as the *St. John's* river, but by the voyageurs called *Cypress* river, from the adjacent forest of cypress timber, as it is called. This tree is an evergreen, with rough bark, resembling a tamarack, but the leaves are more like the hemlock. At 15 miles from Presque Isle Harbour, the shore made again to the westward, the sandstone bluff being more elevated and perpendicular ; its strata somewhat rolling, but the general dip appeared to be westward. The face of the rock, was from 15 to 80 feet above the water. The knobs of Point Kewena were now distinctly in sight, from 40 to 50 miles distant, in the north. Mr. Dorr, being quite sick with a bilious fever, we determined to make a long traverse on the next day, across the bay, to Inverse Island, and thence, with all despatch, to Copper Harbour. But after putting out, in the face of a stiff breeze, early in the day, we found it impossible to weather the next point, and returned to camp. The river called the St. John's by us, is known to the French as the " Chien-Jaun," or Yellow Dog river, corrupted, in the first instance, to " Shannejone," and thence to St. John. It is, on the map, laid down as about 30 miles long. In this country the creek is never used, but the French term " *riviere*," is applied to all its streams, which is Anglicised *river*. Being now wind-bound for the day, I took our trusty and intelligent whaler, *Martin*, who had already shown himself a good woodsman, as well as a first-rate sailor, and followed the creek into the interiour. At the end of two miles of still, deep water, our canoe was obstructed by flood-wood, and at three-fourths of a mile further, by a fall of 8 or 10 feet, over sand rock. Above the fall was a beautiful lake, overlooked by granitic mountains on the west, with an opening at the south. This led us to a second lake, and this to a third—strictly speaking, only branches of the same water—in all, about four miles long. On the east and south were gentle ridges, sustaining the first valuable pines we had seen ; on the west, lofty hills. In the low grounds, at the water level, were thousands of large white cedars, forming a perfect *abattis*, or barrier, against our progress. There were pheasants and ducks in abundance—red squirrels, and whortleberries. On the whole, there was present so much of the New England scenery and productions, that I have written on my sketch of these ponds the name of " New England Lakes." This is the termination of our 30 mile river.

On the succeeding day, the wind being still adverse to a direct passage to Copper Harbour, we thought only of proceeding along the coast, to the westward, and reached the mouth of Huron river, in a few hours. The health of our invalid having improved, we hauled the boat over the sand-bar, at the mouth of this river, and finding deep and wide water, ascended about two miles, and encamped. The reports of other exploring parties, were highly favourable to the Huron region, as a mineral location ; but after expending two days of rainy weather, in the mountains between the Little and the Big Huron, and finding the signs of valuable copper not promising, we set forward for the " Anse."

During our stay, we had made an excursion, by water, into a bay about 15 miles deep, called after the adjacent islands and river, Huron Bay. The shores are low, and the extremity, or head, swampy, and filled with a labyrinth of wet islands, covered with white cedar. On the south, the Huron range overlooks the bay, at a height of 500 to 600 feet. This inlet is in the form of a pocket, gathered at the middle; and if necessary, though shallow, would accommodate a great number of vessels. When we were fairly at the bottom of the pocket, the wind came square in, and preventing our departure that night, we were under the necessity of encamping, without blankets, in a lodge lately occupied by the surveyors. A lodge is a temporary habitation, erected by those who have no tents, to be occupied for the night, or for some days if the weather is bad. It is made of evergreen boughs, pine, hemlock, or balsam, cut short. The frame-work consists of two crotches, and a pole between them. On the side towards the wind poles are laid, like rafters, one end on the ground, the other on the cross-pole, in the crotches. On these the small brush is laid, like shingles, beginning at the ground, and each course overlapping the last. The ends are stopped in the same way, and the fire built in front. They serve to keep off the dew, snow, and wind, but are of little avail in heavy rains.

The promontory between Huron Bay and Kewena Bay is called "Point Obang," a corruption of "Point Abayè." It is a low, flat tract of land, which bears some sugar maple, and has a good soil, capable of cultivation. The range line between ranges 29 and 30 west, comes to the lake a short distance west of the mouth of Huron river. The northwest corner of Section 18, T. 52 N., R. 29 W., is about a mile from the shore—showing a progress to the westward of St. Marie's of 29 towns, and to the northward five towns.

About six miles from the shore is a collection of granitic islands, called the Huron Islands, inhabited by rabbits in great numbers. Soon after casting loose from the Islands, our fitful breeze again settled into the west, compelling us to land and anchor the boat in an open roadstead, where she tumbled and pitched all night and all the next day, our faithful whaler sleeping on board. In the evening, a calm enabled us to work with oars, and to reach the mission at the "Anse" about daybreak.

This term, is the French for a small bay, and is used to designate the place, as well as the head or extremity of Kewena Bay. Here the *Abbe Mesnard* preached to the Sioux, in 1660, and impelled by the missionary spirit, proceeded towards "Chegoimegon," the modern La Pointe. He is said to have perished in the wilds beyond the Ontanagon, for he was seen no more.

There is yet a Catholic mission on the north side of the bay, which, with its collection of log cabins, and chapel, presents at a distance, a very pretty view. On the south side is the Fur Company's agency, now comparatively desolate, and the Methodist mission for the Chippeways. Dr. Johnson, the carpenter, and Mr. Brockway, the blacksmith and farmer, of this mission, showed our party great kindness, which is more to be considered, when it is known that the spirit of copper speculation had attracted many people to the country, all of whom received the good offices of the establishment.

The mission farm produces good grass, very heavy crops of potatoes and turnips, good oats, barley, and rye. They are now trying the wheat crop, with little doubt of success.

Those who have spent the winter here, do not complain of its severity, although snow lies from one to four feet deep, from December till

May. The bay furnishes inexhaustible supplies of white fish, that are taken almost the entire year. Every night, except Sunday, the water is dotted with the canoes of the squaws and Indians, planting their gill nets; and again, at daylight in the morning, these female fishermen are seen overhauling the net for their morning meal. The two missions appear to divide the band about equally. At this moment, the principal portion of both flocks are absent at La Pointe, receiving their annuities, each under the watchful care of their respective pastors.

From the Anse to the mouth of the Ontanagon, direct by land, is a very practicable route for a road, the distance about 45 miles. It is from this place, also, that the winter trail to Green Bay leads off to the southward, and which must always be the approach from the States by land. To reach the Ontanagon by water, the distance is about 160 miles, following the shore around Point Kewena. But about 12 miles from the Catholic mission there is a river, called the Portage river, that communicates with the Portage Lakes, which extend across the base of Point Kewena, to within one mile and a half of the northern shore. For bark canoes and light craft this portage is practicable, and usually made. About 60 miles of navigation is thus avoided.

Having feasted a couple of days upon the good things of the Anse, to wit: potatoes, turnips, sweet milk, and fresh bread, we departed for Copper Harbour, and arrived there in ten days. The sand rock of the south shore of Kewena Bay continued around on the northern side to "Bay de Gris." A little beyond this, a different rock made its appearance, but probably the geological equivalent of the red and variegated sand rock. It is a very coarse, but stratified conglomerate, with pebbles of agate, quartz trap, amygdaloid trap, red granite, &c., many of them larger than a man could lift. It is raised in *uplifts*, corresponding with the subordinate trap, and contains fissures like the trap, which are filled with spar. The general course of the uplifts is southwest by west, and the course of the fissures or veins, both of the trap and conglomerate, is nearly at *right angles* to the face of the uplifts. It is in these veins that the native copper and its ores are found.

The line of greatest elevation runs near the middle of the point, forming an anticlinal axis, from which the rocks pitch each way, at various angles, from 20 to 60 deg. But it must not be supposed that the descent is regular from the summit towards the lake. In the volcanic convulsions that generated and raised the trap rocks, they were greatly broken and fractured; and consequently, the overlying rocks, the conglomerate and sandstones, were dislocated in the same way. They now lie in the form of vast steps; the broken faces of the conglomerate and trap nearly perpendicular, and the slopes at the angles above stated. The veins of the stratified and the unstratified rocks appear to be of the same age; to have been formed by the same cause, after the enclosing rocks had taken the form and position they now have. Upon the manner of the formation of these veins there are various conjectures, which I have not space to notice. When they pass from the conglomerate to the harder and more compact trap rock, they are said to diminish in width, and the material of the vein changes. They carry, in general, beautiful calcareous spar, and also other substances besides copper, such as quartz and barytes.

From the Manitou Islands, at the extremity of Point Kewena, to the

Portage Lakes, the most elevated mountain range, or rather succession of knobs, is nearer to the north than the south shore, and from 100 to 800 feet in height. It is a very rough region to explore, with precipitous rocks, thick cedar swamps, and tangled evergreens, in every part. But Dr. Houghton, with five companies of explorers and surveyors, has subdivided all the land east of the Portage Lakes into sections, during the past summer, except one fractional township. The labour and exposure attending this work cannot be understood by any except those who have been upon the ground, and seen its mountains and swamps. This survey was undertaken to demonstrate the practicability and value of a favourite system of Dr. Houghton's. He had, as geologist of the State of Michigan, spent several years in this desert region, and knew its mineral worth. He felt, as every exploring geologist feels, the necessity of exact topographical and lineal surveys, in order to give his reports that character of perfect accuracy of which the science is capable. In truth, a large portion of the results of mineral explorations is geographical, topographical, and mathematical matter. The thickness, extent, and dip of rocks, when found, constitute a perfect measurement of the country. Dr. Houghton contracted with the Government to make the *lineal survey* of this region, and at the same time a *geological* one ; and labouring upon it as the great undertaking of his life, had, as I have remarked, nearly completed the most difficult portion—that of Point Kewena. His melancholy fate is well known.

By these surveys, Fort Wilkins and Copper Harbour are situated near the southwest corner of town 59 *north*, range 28 *west*, or 12 towns north, and 28 west of St. Mary's.

The returns of the Government surveys of this region will not show any of the coasts and water-courses, in connexion with town and section lines, but will give the elevation and depression—what public surveys hitherto have not—of the country, taken at every change, by the barometer. They will, further, exhibit the exact limit and character of the mineral region. Such a system, introduced into all the public surveys, with modifications suitable to the agricultural districts, such as the analysis of soils, collection of plants and marls, would be of immense advantage to the settler, and honourable to the nation.

The maps and papers of the mineral agency at Porter's Island, in Copper Harbour, showed about 500 locations, of one mile square, each. The War Department has, by usage, the control of the mineral lands of the United States. It is doubtful whether there is any law that covers the case of the copper mines of Lake Superiour. The President has, however, reposed the power of leasing these and other mineral lands in the War Department, which confides their management to the Bureau of Ordnance, which acts by local agents. The Secretary of War, or the local agents, grant permits of search and location, and the location being made, a lease is granted to the locator. In this lease, there are covenants to render the Government *six* per cent. of the mineral raised, for three years, and after that time, the Government have power to require *ten* per cent. for the next *six* years.

At first, the permits included three miles square, or nine square miles ; but were, early last spring, reduced to one square mile, and given upon every application, without fees. About 70 permits were now laid in the neighbourhood of Dead Men's river, and 8 or 10 about the mouth of Huron river. The Point Kewena, proper, that is to say, that portion east of the Portage Lakes, was mostly covered, and various other large tracts on the waters of Elm river, the Ontanagon, Iron river, Montreal, and even on the Brule, beyond La Pointe.

In order, therefore, to locate our permits, it became necessary to go westward, and explore some of the vacant regions beyond the Portage Lakes. We therefore left Copper Harbour, touching at Agate Harbour, Eagle Harbour, and Eagle river, and proceeded to the mouth of Salmon Trout river, in township 55 north, range 35 west.

Mr. Bushnell, and myself, and two men, here took to the woods, and striking the range line between 34 and 35, followed it south, to the south-east corner of township 53 north, range 35 west, being about 17 miles interiour. To our surprise, instead of finding a rugged mineral region, we had passed through a handsome rolling country, tolerably well watered, with a good loamy soil, producing an abundance of sugar maple. Along the margin of the lake, owing probably to the harsh and moist winds from the water, nothing but birch, balsam, pine, hemlock, spruce, and white cedar, is seen; but to the distance of two to five miles, interiour, the forest growth changes entirely. There is an occasional white pine, with a lofty, straight, and majestic trunk, some scattering elms, linns, and black oaks, but the reigning tree is the sugar maple.

On our left, lay the valley of the Portage Lakes and of Sturgeon river, which we had just crossed. Turning westward, we soon encountered one of those eye-sores to the explorer and surveyor, a *cedar swamp*, in which a progress of a mile an hour is considered rapid travelling. The white cedar lives to a great age before it begins to decline. It finally rots at the root, and is blown down by the northern tempest. But this is by no means its end; its prostrate trunk sends up live branches, that draw sustenance through the roots of the parent, of new prongs sent by itself below, among the buried trunks of preceding centuries. In after ages, when it has at length matured, and, weakened by time, has yielded to the winds, another sprout from its side keeps the family stock in perpetual being. Beneath the accumulated bodies of these trees, some dead and some living, the water, in which they delight, stands the year through, flowing gradually towards some stream of the vicinity. What is remarkable, the water of these swamps, so little and slow is the decay of the cedar tree, is clear, pure, and cool.

I hope I have been able to convey to the reader, a just idea of a white cedar swamp, because without a correct conception of this, he will never be able to realize the great difficulty of travelling in this new country. After he has penetrated one of them forty rods, the view is equally extensive in every direction, whether it is only forty rods to the other side, or whether it is two miles. In addition to the network of logs, and the thicket of leaves that never fall, it is necessary to think of numberless dry, sharp, and stiff prongs, the imperishable arms and limbs of dead and fallen trees. It is then to be remembered that every man carries more or less of a load upon his back; his blanket, his tin cup, probably some implement, a hatchet, or a hammer, with specimens, and a few pounds of provisions.

The second night found us advanced about one mile into a noble cedar swamp. Climbing a tree extended somewhat the range of the eye, but it met only the sombre and half naked trunks of the white cedar, in every direction. A camp-bed was formed beneath a tall and beautiful *larch*, or tamarack, and a fire made at its root. The bed was made made as usual of branches, kept out of the water in this instance by brush and poles. This white cedar has the merit of burning readily, as well as of durability, and made to-night a bright fire, flaming gaily upwards against the straight and stately larch. When had such an illumination shone there before? The owl gave utterance to his surprise in hideous screams, and hooted for his mate. The larch, as it swayed to and fro in the night breeze, seemed to creak and groan because of the fire, which was scorching its sinews and boiling its life-blood in its veins. No doubt, before many seasons pass by, he will sicken and die, and from a tall prince, overlooking the humble cedars, will come heavily down, perhaps in the stillness of night, and lay his body along side of theirs.

In the morning, after passing a cold and comfortless night, a few minutes' travel cleared the swamp, and rising some very high land, we found the stratified sandstone again, and inclined towards the lake.

At the southeast corner of township 53 north, range 36 west, the trap ranges again made their appearance, from whose summits the mountains of the Huron river were visible, in the south, beyond the Anse.

We were now on the head waters of Elm river, on ground located for many miles around. Most of them are what are called office locations, made without visiting the spot, and in consequence of some locations made by Mr. Kenzie, of Chicago, from actual observation, of which favourable reports were in circulation.

That night we should have met two of our men at a rendezvous with supplies; but neither party had sought the right spot, so indefinite were the descriptions given us of localities. As it was some miles from the coast to the mineral ranges, the boat passed slowly along the shore, sending out provisions, from time to time, to the exploring party. It was not then known how far west the township lines were surveyed, consequently the points of meeting were fixed at the forks of some stream, or some old camp, and in finding these many errours might be committed. In this case a day was consumed in uniting the two parties, which would not have been of so much consequence, had not the stock of eatables began to fail. But most of the disagreeble effects of a short allowance were avoided by the capture of a porcupine, of which we made, by long boiling in the camp-kettle, very palatable soup.

On the 20th of September, at a distance of 20 miles from the coast, there were a few flakes of snow, succeeding a cold rain. On the 21st and 22d, rain. The ground passed over during this week, is drained by the Salmon Trout river, (a creek,) Elm river, Misery river, Sturgeon, and Flint Steel rivers. Every member of the party was delighted with its soil, its beautiful and heavy timber, and the unsurpassed purity, plenty, and coldness of its waters. We passed several small clear lakes, the sources of many streams. These streams are in general but few miles in length, enlarging very fast as you follow them downward from the head, alive with the famous speckled trout, rapid in their descent, and so uniform in the flow of water, that water power is every where abundant. Many a time did Patrick and Charley select their future farms, on the border of some quiet pool, from which a tumbling brook issued, bearing its faithful tribute into the reservoir of the Father of Lakes.

The cedar swamps, so hateful to the explorer, will be necessary to the farmer for his supply of rails; the tall, round pines, scattered here and there among the sugar trees, now so green and majestic, will supply him with lumber; the straight and beautiful balsam, with timber.

Hitherto, the mineral trap rocks that rise occasionally through the sandstone stratum, do not greatly interfere with the use of the land for tillage. This rock, when fully disintegrated, gives a light soil that produces well. It this vicinity, the trap rises suddenly out of the plain land, sometimes with one perpendicular face and one gentle slope; sometimes like an island with a bluff all around, and flat, rich land on the top; and sometimes in irregular peaks, standing among the timber like cones and pyramids. At the sources of Flint Steel river we saw, interspersed with protruding summits of trap, peaks of conglomerate shooting up from flat land, to the height of 50, 70, and 100 feet.

Pursuing a southwesterly course, about noon, on the 26th, we entered the ravines that lead into the Ontanagon. From Elm river to the Ontanagon, the sand rock is covered from 10 to 400 feet in depth, with a stratified deposite of *red clay and sand*, very fine. It is commonly called clay, but contains more silex than alumine, though it is so minutely divided as to have the appearance of clay. I saw nowhere true clay beds, but it is possible some of this deposite will harden in the fire, so as to make bricks.

This great sand-bed is easily washed out by running water. From the Falls, the Ontanagon has hollowed out for itself a channel 300 to 400 feet deep, and from a half a mile to two miles wide. The lateral gullies are very numerous, deep, and steep. Every permanent rill, operating for ages, has excavated a narrow trough, the bottom of which descends towards the river, in the inverse proportion to its length, and the sides remain as nearly a perpendicular as the earth will lie. The low grounds, not so wet as to cause cypress and cedar swamps, are everywhere inclined to produce hemlock and balsam. It is the same in the prairies; cold, moisture, and a confined atmosphere, causing the growth of evergreens, and also of cedars.

It will now be easy to judge of the facilities of travelling in the region of the gullies. To cross them, rising one slippery face and sliding down the next, is very exhausting to men loaded with packs. To follow down one of the ravines, so narrow, deep, and shaded, as almost to exclude the sun at noon, is much like the change "from the frying pan into the fire." The timber of the sides has fallen inward, into and across the contracted pathway of the rivulet, so thick, and so much entangled, that the mind is in a constant state of exercise, determining whether it is easier to crawl under, or climb over the next log.

In such regions, as you approach the common discharge of all these ravines, as a creek, a lake, or, as in this case, a river, the number of lateral gullies diminish, and it is sometimes preferable to take the crest of the gulf, and follow it towards the mouth. We did so; and coming along a narrow backbone, scarcely wide enough for two to walk abreast, suddenly came to its termination, with the river far below us. It was noon of a lovely day, such as are called the Indian summer. In the distance, to the north 12 or 15 miles, a thick haze covered the lake; the sides and bottom of the valley of the Ontanagon, were brilliant in the mellow sunlight, mottled with yellow and green; the golden tops of the sugar tree mingled with the dark summits of the pine and the balsam. The rough gorges that enter the valley on both sides, were now concealed by the dense foliage of the trees, partly gorgeous, and partly sombre, made yet richer by the contrast, so that the surface of the wood, as seen from our elevation, in fact from the waving top of a trim balsam which I had ascended, lay like a beautifully worked and coloured carpet, ready for our feet.

On this promontory, jutting into the valley, we kindled a fire in the dry and hollow trunk of a hemlock, as a beacon to our companions, who were to be at the foot of the rapids with the boat.

On the left or inland side, the valley at some miles distant is seen to divide, corresponding with the two branches of the river. In this direction are elevated peaks, several hundred feet higher than our position, but partly hid in the mist of the atmosphere. We had now spent as much time in scene gazing as was profitable, and taking up our packs, tumbled down the bluff to the river. There stood the tents, and there lay the boat, with our comrades lounging about in the sun. The meeting brought forth three hearty shouts all around, and such congratulations of genuine good will, as none but woodsmen and sailors know.

We were now at the foot of the rapids, one mile north of the correction base, which is also the line between towns 50 and 51 north, and one mile east of the range line between ranges 39 and 40 west.

On the next day, after washing, drying, and mending, some of the most needed garments, Patrick, our faithful Irishman, and myself, crossed the river, and went west along the correction line. This course carried us constantly nearer the lake, because the direction of the shore is south of west. The timber was, as might have been expected, on approaching the lake, more hemlock, birch, and balsam; but the soil appeared as good as that we had passed over from Salmon Trout river, in range 35 west. In range 41 west, we turned to the left, and soon found that no surveys had been made south of the correction line. The same day a rain set in, that lasted, with little intermission, four days and five nights. In the trap region, the magnetic needle is subject to great fluctuations. When the sky is overcast, as it was in this case, from morning to night, the sun, the principal guide, is of course lost. If the traveller loses his *confidence* in the compass, that instrument is the same as lost, and he is compelled to rely upon judgement, or rather the woodsman's instinct. This judgement is, sometimes, a very uncertain reliance. The streams and ridges of land are so irregular that little information can be drawn from them. There is a great difference in persons, in the accuracy of their calculations, guided by the "make of the country," as its general topography is called. In this region, none but the oldest hunters and trappers feel safe, when the compass begins to play false, and the sun withdraws himself. If the consumption of provisions could cease for the time, it would always be safer and wiser to stop and encamp until clear weather comes; but the appetite does not seem to know that circumstances alter cases. With the mind in a state of perplexity, the fatigue of travelling is greater than usual, and excessive fatigue, in turn weakens, not only the power of exertion, but of resolution, also. The wanderer is finally overtaken with an indescribable sensation—one that must be experienced to be understood—that of *lostness*. At the moment when all his faculties, instincts, and perceptions, are in full demand, he finds them all confused, irregular, and weak. When every physical power is required to carry him forward, his limbs seem to be yielding to the disorder of his mind; he is filled with an impressive sense of his inefficiency, with an indefinite idea of alarm, apprehension, and dismay; he reasons, but trusts to no conclusion; he decides upon the preponderance of reason and fact, as he supposes, and is sure to decide wrong. If he stumbles into a trail he has passed before, or even passed within a few hours, he does not recognise it; or if he should at last, and conclude to follow it, a fatal lunacy impels him to take the wrong end. His own tracks are the prints of the feet of some other man, and if the sun should at last penetrate the fogs and clouds that envelop his path, the world seems for a time to be turned end for end; the sun is out of place—perhaps it is, to his addled brain, far in the north, coursing around to the south, or in the west, moving towards the east. At length, like a dream, the delusion wears away; objects put on their natural dress; the sun takes up its usual track; streams run towards their mouths; the compass points to the northward; dejection and weakness give place to confidence and elasticity of mind.

I have twice experienced what I have here attempted to describe. It is a species of delirium. It oppresses and injures every faculty, like any other intense and overwhelming action. The greatest possible care should be taken to prevent the occasion for its return. Two men, last summer, were exploring on Elm river, and without compass or food, started for a vein a few rods from camp. They got entangled among swamps and hills, and wandered forty-eight hours in the woods, bewildered and lost. By accident, they struck the lake shore, and their senses returned. It is not prudent to be a moment without the means of striking a fire, without food for a day or two, and a plenty of clothing, or without a compass. Our man Martin, and myself, went out in the morning, from Salmon Trout river, intending to go three miles and return. He had neither coat, nor vest, nor stockings, because the weather was mild. A rain soon come on, and a thick mist; steering for the camp, we struck the creek two miles above the mouth and the camp. The ground in the vicinity of the lake has a low, evergreen bush, with a leaf like the hemlock, which lies flat on the surface, entangling the feet at every step. It was dark when we struck the creek, and began to follow it down stream. The sloughs, logs, ground hemlocks, and cedar brush, were so bad, that it would have been difficult to make much progress in daylight, and it was now pitch dark. We took to the water-course to avoid the brush and bluffs of either bank, and waded along the channel. But the waters of these streams are always cold, and Martin, though a stout fellow, and full of resolution, began to be numb with cold and wet. We took nothing to eat; our matches were wet; the gun could not be fired off. There was but one course to pursue. The stream would take us to camp, but how far distant that desirable spot lay, we could not conjecture. But the chilly water must be avoided, and the brush and logs, wet, slippery, and numberless as they were, must be surmounted. "We have crossed that log before," says Martin. "*What, are we lost?* Impossible; we have not left the stream a moment—it cannot be." Crooked and winding as it was, it is not possible that we should travel twice over the same ground. But there was the log, to all appearance the same we had crossed half an hour before. Both of us would swear to the identity of the log—the same timber, the same size, the same splinters at the root; the bark off in the same way;

and still it was more probable that *two* such logs should be found, than that we had passed *twice* over the same spot.

We crawled around, filled with the mystery—and it is not to this hour any thing else than a mystery. In about two hours my companion gave an exclamation of hope and joy. He had been up the creek the day before, shooting ducks and fishing for trout. He recognised the spot where the canoe was obstructed by flood-wood, half a mile from the tents. We now knew where there was a trail, and in a few minutes beheld the sparks of the camp-fire ascending gaily among the trees.

With fire works better secured, with more attention to clothing on the part of Martin, and to blankets by both of us, especially with ordinary prudence in regard to provisions, the discomfort and exertion, the bruises, chills, and exhaustion of this day, so injurious to the constitution, whether felt immediately or not, might have been entirely avoided. It may be thought that such vexations might be prevented by a rational foresight, and this is no doubt true; but in practice they occur frequently to woodsmen, and they are in general as keen in the examination of chances as any class of men. Even Indians and Indian guides become bewildered, miscalculate their position, make false reckonings of distances, lose courage, and abandon themselves to despair and to tears.

The maps for the copper region, instead of assisting the explorer, were for the interiour so erroneous—a fault worse than deficiency—that mistakes equal to a day's travel frequently resulted from a reliance upon them.

On the office map there was noted a lake not far above the forks of the Ontanagon—on the west fork. Leaving the "correction base" at the southwest corner of town 51 N., range 40 W., we should have struck that lake in the distance of ten miles; but, instead of a lake, found ourselves involved in the marshes at the sources of the Cranberry and Iron rivers, the lake itself being about fifteen miles distant. The forks of the Ontanagon appeared from the map, and the best information within reach, to be about four miles by river above the foot of the rapids. This was made a point in our return, to which a packer was sent with pork and beans. Instead of making the rendezvous in one day's travel, as was expected, he reports the distance at fifteen miles by river, and seven or eight in a direct line. The delay occasioned by bad weather and mistakes, amounted on our part to two days; the packer, who had at last reached the forks, after spending two nights in a cold rain, without fire, had left, and carried back his provisions. Patrick had, by mistake, taken salt pork for three men, instead of two. When we arrived at the Forks, only one meal of bread and beans remained, with a little tea and sugar; but the pork was sufficient for two days more. It was necessary to alter our route, and employ those two days in reaching the agency at the mouth of the river. This is an instance of hazard and disappointment, and it is difficult to see how it could have been avoided. With the greatest sagacity and forethought, small parties, who do not survey and mark their courses and distances, cannot avoid occasional perils.

The circumstances in which we were placed, did not allow of as much observation upon that interesting region, the Falls of the Ontanagon, as I desired. The greatest fall is on the west branch, and occupies a distance of at least two miles, with a descent of about eighty feet. It was at the head of this succession of cataracts, that the "Copper Rock" was found, which is now at Washington city. It lay when first discovered, on the brink of the river, in the red deposite, of which I have spoken, although mountains of trap, sandstone, and conglomerate, rise on all sides. The rock was removed from its place upon a temporary railway, constructed through the woods, about four miles, to a point on the river where it could be floated. This road crossed deep ravines, and a steep mountain 300 feet high. The rock was hauled along on a car, and up the mountain, by a capstan and ropes. Its weight is a little over 3,000 pounds.

It is now eighty years since this copper rock obtained notoriety among white men. Mr. *Alexander Henry*, an adventurous Englishman, and an agreeable writer, who entered the Indian country immediately after the peace of 1763, gives a description of the rock, which is worthy of being repeated.

"On the 19th of August, (1765,) we reached the mouth of the river Ontanagon, one of the largest on the south side of the lake. At the mouth was an Indian village, and at three leagues above, a fall, at the foot of which sturgeon were at this season so abundant, that a month's subsistence for a regiment, could have been taken in a few hours. But I found this river chiefly remarkable for the abundance of virgin copper which is on its banks and in its neighbourhood, and of which the reputation is at present (1809) more generally spread, than it was at the time of this, my first visit. The copper presented itself to the eye in masses of various weight. The Indians showed me one of twenty pounds. They were used to manufacture this metal into spoons and bracelets for themselves. In the perfect state in which they found it, it required nothing but to be beat into shape. The 'Pi-wa-tie,' or Iron river, enters the lake to the westward of the Ontanagon, and here it is pretended silver was found, while the country was in the possession of the French."—*Part* 1, pp. 194-5.

"On my way (1776) I encamped a second time at the mouth of the Ontanagon, and now took the opportunity of going ten miles up the river, with Indian guides. The object which I went most expressly to see, and to which I had the satisfaction of being led, was a mass of copper, of the weight, according to my estimate, of no less than five tons. Such was its pure and malleable state, that, with an axe, I was able to cut off a portion weighing a hundred pounds. On viewing the surrounding surface, I conjectured that the mass, at some period or other, had rolled from the side of a lofty hill which rises at its back."—p. 205.

I quote extensively from Mr. Henry's interesting book, because it is now out of print, and very rare. Capt. *Jonathan Carver*, also, travelled in the Lake Superiour and Mississippi country, in 1766, of whom, after the manner of succeeding travellers, speaking of their predecessors, Mr. *Henry* says, "and he falls into other errours." The Chippeways told Carver, that being once driven by a storm to the *Isle de Maurepas*, (now *Michipicoten*,) they had found large quantities of shining earth, "which must have been gold dust." They put some of it into their canoes, but had not moved far from the land, when a spirit sixty feet in height strode into the water, and ordered them to bring every particle of it back to the island. This of course they did, and never ventured again to the haunted island.

In the spring of 1769, Mr. Henry, excited by this and other reports of the Indians, visited the islands, expecting to find "shining rocks and stones of rare description," but found only a mass of rock, rising into barren mountains, with veins of spar. The Indians then insisted upon going to another island to the south, (Caribeau) as it was the true island of the "golden sands;" but the weather prevented this visit at that time. In 1770, Mr. Baxter, Mr. Bostwick, and Mr. Henry, were constituted members of a company for working mines on Lake Superiour.

"We passed the winter together at Sault de Sainte Marie, and built a barge fit for the navigation of the lake; at the same time laying the keel of a sloop of forty tons. Early in May, 1771, we departed from Point aux Pins, our shipyard, and sailed for the island of Yellow Sands, promising ourselves to make our fortunes, in defiance of the serpents. I was the first to land, carrying with me my loaded gun, resolved to meet with courage the guardians of the gold.

"A stay of three days did not enable us to find gold, or even yellow sands; and no serpents appeared to terrify us, not even the smallest and most harmless snake.

"On the fourth day, after drying our Caribeau meat, we sailed for *Nanibasou*, (on the north shore,) which we reached in eighteen hours, with a fair breeze. On the next day, the miners examined the coast of Nanibasou, and found several veins of copper and lead; and after this returned to Point aux Pins, where we erected an air furnace. The assayer made a report on the ores which we had collected, stating that the lead ore contained silver in the proportion of forty ounces to the ton; but the copper ore only in very small proportion indeed."

The party now start for the Ontanagon, having in company a Mr. Norberg, an officer in the 60th regiment, then stationed at Mackinaw, old fort. At Point Iroquois, he found among the loose stones, one "of eight pounds, of a blue colour, and semi-transparent," which he deposited in the British Museum at London, and which, it is said, contained *sixty* per cent. of silver.

"Hence we coasted westward, but found nothing till we reached the Ontanagon, where, besides the detached masses of copper formerly mentioned, we saw much of the same metal imbedded in stone. Proposing to ourselves to make a trial on the hill, till we were better able to go to work on the solid rock, we built a house, and sent to the Sault de Sainte Marie for provisions. At the spot pitched upon for the commencement of our preparations, a green coloured water, which tinged iron of a copper colour, issued from the hill, and this the miners called a *leader*. In digging, they found frequent masses of copper, some of which were of three pounds weight. Having arranged every thing for the accommodation of the miners during the winter, we returned to the Sault. Early in the spring of 1772, we sent a boat load of provisions, but it came back on the 20th day of June, bringing with it, to our surprise, the whole establishment of miners. They reported that in the course of the winter they had penetrated forty feet into the hill, but that on the arrival of the thaw, the clay on which, on account of its stiffness, they had relied, and neglected to secure by supports, had fallen in; that from the detached masses of metal which to the last had daily presented themselves, they supposed there might be ultimately reached some body of the same, but could form no conjecture of its distance. Here our operations in this quarter ended It was never for the exportation of copper that our company was formed but always with a view to the silver which it was hoped the ores, whether of copper or lead, might in sufficient quantity contain."—pp. 227, 232.

"In the following August we launched our sloop, and carried the miners to the vein of copper ore on the north side of the lake, (probably at Nanibasou, about one day's sail from Michipicoten.) Little was done during the winter; but by dint of labour, performed between the commencement of the spring of 1773, and the ensuing month of September, they penetrated thirty feet into the solid rock. The rock was blasted with great difficulty, and the vein which at the beginning was of the breadth of *four* feet, had in the progress contracted into *four* inches. Under these circumstances we desisted, and carried the miners back to the Sault. What copper ore we had collected, we took to England; but the next season we were informed that the partners there declined entering into further expenses. In the interim, we had carried the miners along the north shore, as far as the river *Pic*, making, however, no discovery of importance. This year, therefore, (1774,) Mr. Baxter disposed of the sloop and other effects of the company, and paid its debts. The partners in England were his Royal Highness the Duke of Gloucester, Mr. Secretary Townshend, Sir Samuel Tucket, Baronet, Mr. Baxter, Consul of the Empress of Russia, and Mr. Cruikshank. In America, Sir William Johnson, Baronet, Mr. Bostwick, Mr. Baxter, and myself. A charter had been petitioned for and obtained, but owing to our ill success, it was never taken from the seal office."—pp. 234-5.

There is living an old chief who, when a boy, saw this company of English miners at the falls of the Ontanagon. He represents the manager as a stout, burly man, with a red face. There are near the spot where the great copper rock was found, remains of a chimney, supposed to belong to the house spoken of by Henry. The timber around the spot was of a second growth; now cut away by Mr. James Paul, who has lived there, and located a three-mile permit. He told me that an aspen, eighteen inches in diameter, had blown down near his cabin, and a copper kettle was found, flattened and corroded, beneath its roots. There are also the remains of ancients pits, still visible; and in the sand and clay deposite, by digging, lumps of native copper are now found. There can, therefore, be no doubt but this is the spot visited by the English company, before the American Revolution, and now become again an object of hope and notoriety.

This region is singularly wild and disordered. The Falls, which are distinct from the "Rapids," are caused by the irregular upheaval of trap, sandstone, and conglomerate, thrown about in grand confusion. To the miner and geologist such points possess not only the greatest interest, but the greatest practical value.

Here appears to be one of those great centres of convulsion, which raised and tossed about the metalliferous rocks. Another may be seen to the eastward of the Portage Lakes. From the central point in such direction along the line of action, that is to say, in a northeasterly and southwesterly course, the height of the upheaval and the extent of the distortion gradually becomes less on each side. The effect of the subterranean forces being very much the same upon the overlying sand rock, asrthat of a projecting point of rock upon the ice of an estuary of the sea when the tide falls away. The trap uplifts represent the rock, itself rising instead of the sandstone stratum settling. The resemblance is not perfect, but only illustrative. The field of ice subsiding upon a sharp point of rock, in a bay of quiet waters, will break and crack equally in all directions. But the uprising trap, though it has a centre, does not act equally on all sides; for there is a *line* of upheaval, along which the force operates, giving rise to an elevated ridge, which is highest at the centre, or focus. It has a breadth of 5 to 15 miles, and a length of 50 or 60. The trap rock intruding from below has within itself a certain regularity, which I have noticed before ; throwing up long parallel faces, looking inward towards the line of greatest elevation.

Of this fact I have from observation a knowledge of only a portion of the northern half of the trap range ; from the Manitou Islands to Sun river, a distance of about 120 miles. I did not cross the range far enough to ascertain the position of the south half, and give this statement of its organization upon the representation of other explorers, whom I have no reason to doubt.

These ranges are not in every case parallel to the great anticlinal line, but generally they are so. There are cases of spurs, or lateral ranges, of limited extent, branching off from the main pile. Both the trap and the overlying conglomerate rocks, are very hard to work. The trap is the most compact, but is more uniform in its texture. The conglomerate encloses pebbles of all sizes, and of many different rocks, most of them very hard. This want of homogenity prevents the blast from producing that effect, which it would on a close, uniform, tight rock. I think there can be little doubt but Mr. Henry's conjecture respecting the source of the copper rock of the Ontanagon, and the many copper boulders found in the red clay deposite, is correct. That they were loosened from their position in a neighboring vein, by the disentegration of the enclosing rock, and by the force of gravity and that agent, whatever it may have been, which brought on the red sand and clay deposite, they have been scattered around. The red deposite is evidently younger than the sandstone and the trap, for it is horizontal. The sandstone it is equally evident is older than the trap, for the latter has shot up through it, tilting it outward from the line of uplift. The copper boulders are found imbedded in the red loam, as it may be called, and must have been loosened from the vein at and before the period when it (the loam) was brought on.

The native copper, which is the principal ore of the country, (if metal can be called an ore,) exists in the veins, in all sizes and shapes ; from the weight of the point of a pin to 20, 40, 100, 1,000 and 1,500 pounds. A boulder was found this season near the mouth of Elm river, weighing over 1,500 pounds, which is now at New Haven. I saw an irregular mass in a vein near Agate Harbour, about one mile east, which might with great care have been taken out, weighing 800 to 1000 pounds. It was removed in one body, to the amount of about 400 pounds ; but to procure such specimens there is great trouble and expense, in securing all the prongs against damage by the blast. These boulders are found in the water-worn pebbles of the shore, and of various sizes, from 1 to 40 and 100 pounds. They are also found far to the southward, in Wisconsin—giving rise to great hopes and speculations—transported by that universal power, (whatever it was,) which covered the northern hemisphere with drift from the north.

It may then be suggested whether the great copper rock and its satellites, of the Falls of the Ontanagon, were not carried thither in the same manner. There is certainly room for such a doubt. But no matter how far these masses of copper have been transported, or how short the distance they have been moved, they must have originally been derived from veins. Here we find not the particular veins from which the boulder was extracted, but find in the country veins containing exactly such masses. They may have been dragged from regions farther north, where similar veins probably exist, but as there is no necessity for going to so great a distance in search of their origin, so there is not as great a probability of finding their original seat far from their present position. The difficulty of transporting such heavy material is a strong reason against distance, though not a conclusive one.

But in the case of the great rock, the number of attending fragments is so *numerous*—so much more so than is known anywhere else at a distance from the veins, that little doubt remains that they are from a nest not very far off. In the gold region, and in the lead mines, where loose metal is found, the miner begins to search in all directions to ascertain from whence it came. If he finds it more abundant on one side than another, he examines more closely the soil of that side; and if found to increase as he proceeds, he is convinced that he is on the trail. As he follows this, the evidences multiply, and at last he arrives at the parent vein, from which the scattered fragments were driven. It is probable that time, money, and enterprise, will finish what the English company began; and at last disclose a prominent vein within hearing of the cataracts of the west branch.

The mouth of the Ontanagon is one of those commanding points that strike the observer at first glance. As Henry says, it is the principal river of the south shore, and the only one except the Chocolate river and Grand Marais, where a vessel can enter. There is now, in a low stage of the lake, six feet water on the bar, and deep water several miles up the stream, which is about 300 feet wide. It is the natural outlet of a large farming region, which the surveyors say extends 50 or 60 miles interiour, and 40 or 50 each way along the shore. The mineral belt occupies several miles in width, at this point 10 or 12 miles from the shore, and parallel with it; but at the mouth of Sun, Black, and Montreal rivers, it comes down to the waters of the lake. On each side of this range, and even among the Porcupine Mountains, the agricultural resources of the country are only limited by the shortness of the seasons. The soil is good—the climate without an equal for health and strength, and the lake and streams abound in fish. The swamps and the flat lands produce wild grass in abundance, showing the tendency of the soil to that production. Potatoes, turnips, and all roots grow here in the greatest perfection; and oats and barley do well. I have little doubt but it will also be found an excellent wheat region.

We found the rich bottom-lands of the Ontanagon already dotted with the cabins of pre-emption claimants, for several miles up the river. The Indians have a tradition about the name of Ontanagon, as about almost every thing else, and say it is truly "Nindinagan." That an old woman, long ago, was cooking on the shore at the mouth, and her dish slipped into the current and was carried out into the lake. She exclaimed, "Oh! there goes my dish," the Indian of which is said to be Nindinagan.

The site at its mouth is rather low and swampy. On the west the Porcupine Mountains rise boldly out of the water, at the distance of 20 miles, presenting that peculiar outline of the trap uplifts by which they may be recognised afar off, almost as well as by inspection. A cross-section, which would also correspond with the end view, from the Ontanagon may be compared to the notches or teeth of a mill-saw, laid upon its back, one edge straight and vertical, the other sloping. If the expectations of mineral locators are realized, the prosecution of the mining business will of itself create a place of some importance here. To the farmer of New England there will be great inducements, as soon as the mining operations are placed upon a sure footing; for the products most congenial to the region are such as are bulky, and cost much in their transportation, to wit: potatoes and roots, hay and oats. It is well known that miners never till the soil to much purpose. A garden and a little pasture suffice for them. This must be done by the practical farmer. The mineral and the agricultural districts are here so admirably situated as mutually to render to each interest the greatest assistance. When the navigation shall be completed around the rapids of the St. Mary's, the emigrant and miner, placing himself at any harbour of any of the lakes, may take his passage to any part of Lake Superiour, with his family and effects. The hardy son of Vermont and New Hampshire will find here his own climate and mountains; his own trout streams, and a good substitute for the shad and salmon of the ocean; and a soil equal to most parts of the West, without the fever and ague of the more southern portions. The facility of making roads to the interiour is great, and along the shore they are practicable. Of course, on the immediate east, ravines are too frequent to cross without expensive bridges. But a few miles inland the country rises, the valleys of the streams diminish, and a very favourable country is found as far east as the Portage Lakes and the Anse. Here the swamps and lakes form the only serious obstacles, and they are avoided by good selections of routes. The difficulty of making roads in the Ontanagon region is far less than it was in the first settlement of Ohio.

Until the night of the 5th of October I had not observed any frost, although the leaves were already coloured with the hues of autumn, and falling from their stems had begun to cover the ground. The winds and rains that occurred between the 5th and the 10th left the branches of the trees almost as naked as in winter, and the snow began to fall. We were received at the Agency house with that liberality of hospitality which can be found nowhere more full and hearty than among the backwoodsmen of the West. Major Campbell, the agent, was absent in search of a copper rock, in the neighbourhood of "Lake Vieux Desert," about 150 miles distant. In the evening Mr. Paul, who has been three years in the country, and who had joined in the wild-goose chase after the copper rock, on the faith of an Indian, came in, and amused the company till a late hour by reciting the stratagems and effrontery of their Indian guide.

Since the whites have shown such an intense curiosity about copper rocks, they have sprung up on all sides. Every Indian knows where one may be found. It can be had of any size or shape, and generally for the price of a few dollars and provisions for the trip. It is generally seven, ten, or twelve days' journey to it. The Great Spirit and the tribe will destroy or otherwise injure him who shows it to the white man, but they will lead him to the vicinity, and he can do the rest. In this case a monster was to be found, and the price was to correspond; but $50 or $60 was somehow procured in advance. The Indian lived in the neighbourhood of the rock and had shown it to but one other mortal; a half breed now dead. After great labour and vexation the party approached the sacred place. There are four trees marked with Porcupines, done in charcoal; according to the description. They were far from any trap ranges, in a low, swampy country. The Indian fixes his eyes in a given direction, and all are elated with the certainty of success. They scour the woods in that direction, but no rock is found. The Indian and his boy wish to be left to pursue the search by themselves, and still the rock hides itself. He is watched, and they find that he only moves around in a limited circle, and returns to the camp. Hesitating between the apprehension that he is duped, and the realization of his hopes, the agent becomes impatient. The Indian at length points his finger to the spot, but the Great Spirit had sunk the rock deep into the earth. The Indian is calm and immovable. "*Hou, hou—marchez wigwam*," he says, in the usual tone. "What does he say?" inquires the agent. "He says we had better go to his wigwam," replies the interpreter. The scene changes from the highest expectations to the highest rage. "Give him a hundred lashes—break every bone in his body—*kill him!*" and expressions of this sort, are now heard, with gestures to match. The Indian could not understand English, but knew enough to be sensible that some cursing was going on, and that he was the object. He now began to kindle with wrath. The first motion was to throw down his pack, and in this he was followed by the boy, and two or three other Indians of the party. What was the agent, the surveyor, and the interpreter to do, here in this wilderness, deserted by their packers and guides. Paul, who had long known the Indian's cunning, saw at once the position of affairs, laughed at the agent, and offered the Indians a half dollar to take up their packs. They had, in the mean time, proceeded from anger to mockery. They had paraded themselves in advance of the party, strutting along with some small willow sticks on their shoulders, in derision of the many loads under which the whites were groaning. The latter were obliged not only to pocket the insult, but to employ the old man, his boy, wife, and canoe, to cross some lakes that lay in their route home.

Coming in they met another party of whites, with the usual complement of Indians, also in search of a copper rock, said to exist in the region of *Lake Vieux Desert*. If such rock were actually visible, no Indian would show it, so long as he can get one-half of his yearly support from it as a guide. Those who know them best, say that it matters little to the explorer whether such boulders exist or not, the Indians will never be guilty of showing one to a white man. There is a superstition upon the subject, and it is also a rule that the proceeds of a found rock should be divided, and a large portion go to the chief. In case an Indian actually knew of one, he would not disclose its position, unless he was sure the fact would never be made known to his tribe.

On the morning of the second day the square-sail of our boat, which had been to La Pointe, appeared at the foot of the Porcupine Mountains, bright in the light of the rising sun. At eleven it entered the river, before a bountiful breeze, and the company was once more together.

The mining company for which we were acting is called the "Algonquin," and is composed principally of citizens of Detroit. Our locations were made, four in number, upon the waters of Flint Steel river, and we were now on the way thither, to make preparations for the men who were to stay through the winter. Towards evening, we entered the mouth of Flint Steel river, which is six miles east of the Ontanagon. Dragging the boat over the bar, and rowing it two miles up the stream, we landed. From thence to the locations, is about twelve miles, over a beautiful rolling country of sugar maple. The copper found here is chiefly native, and is enclosed in the trap rock. We brought away a piece weighing seven pounds, that lay in a vein near the surface.

On the 13th, we were again at the boat, working out of the river. For several days there had been snow, and indications of the close of the season. The snow was still falling as we proceeded down the lake, after dark, with a view of reaching Elm river. But the water was calm, and the oarsmen were making good speed. A little after 9 o'clock, we passed the mouth of Misery river, a bleak and desert place, without firewood, and some of the party fancying they saw a light at the old camp, or Elm, the boat was kept on her course. It was difficult to the see shore at the distance of twenty rods, on account of the falling snow.

About half past 9, a light puff of wind came on from the northwest, which aroused the attention of Martin at once. "If the next one (says he) is stiffer than that, we must put about for Misery river." A sharp flaw followed his words, and the boat was put about. But it was scarcely before the breeze, when it came in short, irregular blasts, and the water became agitated. Martin was our oracle on the water. He said we must make the shore instantly, and the craft bounding and splashing, was headed for a light streak that appeared to be a sand beach, but above which frowned a dark line like a bluff. Before she struck, the sharp, irregular waves combed freely over the sides and the stern of the boat.

"Charley, Patrick, Mike, and all hands, throw your oars and jump ashore!" Every man was in the water in a moment, holding her by the head. "Keep her stern off; heave, ho! heave, ho! Now she sticks. Throw out the luggage before she fills. Keep her stern off; heave, ho! Now she rests; take a line to that root." It would seem that not more than five minutes had passed, since we were quietly moving over that water, from which we were now thankful to seek relief on land. The storm had already become a tempest, roaring through the woods and over the waves, like a tornado. There stood the giant frame of Charley at the stern of the boat, the waves dashing over him, lifting and pushing her towards the shore; the others grasping her by the sides, assisted to work her further on, but she was too much loaded with water, to be moved by main strength; Martin soon rigged the halyards into a purchase with two blocks, by which advantage she was drawn beyond the reach of the sea, that seemed to grow more angry as we rescued the boat from that element.

There is generally within hailing distance a birch tree to be found, and the ragged outside bark, that rolls up like paper, in tatters, will burn at the touch of fire. No matter whether the tree is green or dry, or the day has been wet or dry, there is some side of a birch tree from which there can be pulled a handful of these paper-like shreds, to kindle a fire. These, with a few small dead cedar limbs, will always, with due care, give the foundation of a camp-fire. But to be more certain, voyageurs usually carry a roll of peeled birch bark, the remains of some bark canoe, and this, broken and split into strips, burns at once. Groping about among the balsams and pines, that stood thick on the beach, no birch could be found. The roll in the boat had been washed out, and though found at last, was coarse and wet. The wind and snow which penetrated every nook and corner, added to the difficulty of starting a blaze, and some of the party began to yield to the influence of cold and exhaustion, when we found a piece of dry pine board, and cutting it into shavings, had the satisfaction to see it flame up brightly at the root of a tree. A dish of hot tea revived every one, and at 1 o'clock, the whole party were as sound asleep as ever, in a little hollow, back from the shore. But the storm raged on until the morning after the succeeding day, when we ventured to put ourselves before it, and reached Copper Harbour, sixty miles distant, in eleven hours, without landing. As we passed Eagle river, a number of people were seen along the coast, where the spray still dashed over the rocks, in search, as we afterwards learned, of the body of Dr. Houghton, who with two of his men, were lost there as the gale arose. It is remarkable that no more persons were shipwrecked on that dreadful night. A birch canoe, with an Indian and his boy, and a white man, put out from Agate Harbour, and sailed in the height of the storm to Eagle Harbour, several miles. Other boats were exposed at various points, but by seeking the shore in season, escaped the danger. Dr. H. had the misfortune to be opposite a forbidding coast, with rocks extending into the water, and shallow for some distance out. It was not his misfortune alone, but that of science, and the nation. The boat did not, as it appears from the survivors, *capsize*, so capable is a well-built sail boat of resisting severe weather; but was sent end over end, probably by hitting the bottom, while in a trough of the sea.

In September, a boat of about the same size, made the passage from Isle Royal to Copper Harbour, direct across the open lake, with a bark canoe in tow, before a severe gale. A party of seven men, among whom was Mr. Hall, of the New York survey, were on the island, and short of provisions. The vessel which was expected to take them off had missed the rendezvous, and they were driven to attempt the passage in their open boats. When fairly out on the lake, the wind, which was fair, increased to a gale, in which they gave themselves up for lost. About midway from the two shores the canoe and two men went adrift, and it became necessary to put about and take them again in tow. When it is considered how much the lug of a canoe impedes and endangers a small sail boat in bad weather, it will be regarded as a miracle of preservation that these men completed their voyage in safety.

I intended to give a brief notice of the mines now in operation, but have already made a much longer article, as I fear, than will suit a magazine reader.

The most extensive works are those belonging to the "Lake Superiour Company," at Eagle river, under the superintendence of Col. *C. H. Gratiot.* There were here about 120 workmen, and, in September, near 800 tons of ore, ready for the stamping or crushing machine. This machine is a very nice piece of mechanism, that works by water, and crushes ten tons of the rock in a day. The principal shaft, then 70 feet deep, was in a vein or dyke, about 11 feet wide, one-half of which bears native silver in such quantities as to be an object without regarding the copper. Whether it is a true vein, or an irregular mass, I find geologists do not agree; but for practical purposes, it is regular and extensive.

About four miles southwest from this, the "Pittsburg Company" are working a vein about four feet wide, which bears silver also, but its value is not as well tested as the Lake Superiour Company's bed. Eagle river is only a brook, coming down from the mountains, which a man may cross by ten steps at low water. The shaft and pounding mill is about one and a half miles from the shore, and their landing is five or six miles east. At Eagle Harbour, they have a saw mill and many buildings. The celebrity of the mines, and the scarcity of places of shelter, have caused a great many persons to visit the spot during the past season. The superintendent and his assistants have, however, always shown visiters that attention and hospitality, which could nowhere be esteemed more highly. About three miles east of Eagle river, is the Henshaw location, not as yet much worked. On the west side of Eagle Harbour, at Sprague's location, I procured a handsome specimen of silver, which appeared to be abundant. On the east side is the Bailey location, not worked, but which is well spoken of. On Agate Harbour, the "New York and Lake Superiour Company" had sunk three shafts without hitting the metallic vein. The "Boston Company" have an establishment at the east end of the harbour. Within two miles, on the east, there are two veins, from one of which a piece of native copper, weighing about 400 pounds, was taken by Mr. Hempstead, and in the other a valuable sulphuret of copper has since been discovered. A vein of sulphuret is also known on the waters of Mineral creek, a few miles west of the Ontanagon.

The "Massachusetts Company" have commenced works about a mile west of the extremity of Copper Harbour, where several veins, apparently rich, and said to carry silver, have been opened on the coast. At the Harbour, the "Pittsburgh Company" have two shafts, from which they have taken several tons of the rich black oxyde. A mile east, is a location of the "Isle Royal Company," under the charge of Mr. *Cyrus Mendenhall*, employing ten or fifteen hands.

There are probably now in the country 600 persons engaged in mining, as labourers, agents, clerks, superintendents, and mining engineers.

Communication is kept up with them during the winter, by a semi-monthly mail from Green Bay, taken on the back of a man, by way of the Menominee river and the Anse, to the post-office at Fort Wilkins. This does not allow the carriage of newspapers, or heavy packages, but only letters. Although the winter is severe, it is so uniform that those who have tried it do not complain, and even pursue their journeys with more facility by land than they can in summer. If a road were open to Green Bay, the journey would be made in four or five days, over a road which, once trod, would be perfect for several months. From the best information derived from mail carriers, and gentlemen who have made the trip on snow-shoes, it is not an expensive route for a road.

I have spoken frequently of the fluctuations of the needle, and of its variations. The surveys in this region can be made only with the solar compass, or some instrument of that nature. The one used by Judge Burt, who has run all the township lines west of the Sault, is of his own invention. It is now made in England for exportation to this country. This compass is placed in the meridian by an apparatus always directed on the sun, and as it carries a needle, shows the variation every time it is set.

At the Sault the regular variation was given 2 deg. east, which, at every section corner on the town lines, is written with red chalk on the stake. At southwest corner section 19, range 35 west, T. 55 north, variation 7 deg. 15 min. east; 6 miles directly south, 5 deg. 15 min. east. One mile north of southeast corner of T. 52 north, range 36 west, variation 5 deg. 5 min.; one mile west, 6 deg. 5 min. At south corner of T. 52, range 37, variation 5 deg. 15¼ min. east; one mile north, 1 deg. 10 min.; two miles west, 1 deg. 35 min.; three miles further west, 8 deg. 15 min. At middle of south line of T. 51 north, range 40 west, variation 5 deg. 35 min. east.

For game we saw pheasants, or as some call them partridges, in great numbers, and also red squirrels. No turkeys, deer, or black squirrels. There are bears, moose, and reindeer; yet they are not numerous. There is also an animal of the wild-cat species, called a lynx, whose tracks we saw. For reptiles, we saw none but a few feeble garter snakes. There are owls, mice, and rabbits in abundance. We saw no insects of consequence, except spiders, and these were sufficiently numerous to be troublesome. During the latter part of June, and the whole of July, in the woods and low places, there are countless myriads of moschetoes and sand-flies. They are said not to be troublesome on the coast.

Much of the comfort of a trip in this region depends on the outfit. Arrangements should be made for a supply of at least two pounds of solid food per day for each man, and a surplus for friends who are less provident.

The cheapest, least weighty and bulky, as well as the best for health and relish, are hard bread, beans, and salt pork, of the very best quality. Tea, coffee, and sugar, are in such cases not necessaries, but are, for the expense and trouble, the greatest and cheapest luxuries that can be had under any circumstances. To every two men there must be a small camp-kettle, and if in a boat, a large kettle and frying-pan. In the woods, a hatchet to every two men, and a strong tin cup for each, with a surplus of one-half these articles to make up for losses. Knives, forks, and spoons disappear so fast that two setts to each man will be none to many. Salt and pepper are indispensable for the game you may kill; and if there are a plenty of horse-pistols, a great many pheasants may be shot without much loss of time. But these are not to be taken into account for supplies.

A pocket compass is necessary to each party. For a pack there is nothing better than a knapsack and straps, without the boards. Ordinary clothing is of no use, for it will disappear in a short time. The surveyors wear trousers made of heavy cotton ticking, and a sort of pea-jacket made of the same. This or medium cotton duck will stand wear, and although moisture comes through, the rains do not. It thickens when wet, and turns long storms better than any thing except oil-cloth. A supply of thick flannel shirts should be procured without fail, and flannel or Canton flannel under-clothes. A vest is unnecessary, and instead of suspenders the pantaloons are kept up by a broad belt, on which the tin-cup may be strung. A low, round-crowned, white beaver hat is much worn, but perhaps a light cap, of oiled silk, made soft and impervious to rain, is better. For the feet, moccasins or light brogans, made of good leather, and plenty of woollen stockings. In the wet season, cowhide boots, made of good but not heavy leather, and very large, but in the shape of the foot. A flint and steel for emergencies, and matches for ordinary use to strike a fire. Without something water-proof around them, the matches will acquire moisture in long spells of wet weather. If you carry a map case, they may be put in a second case, around which the map is rolled. A belt with a leather pouch and a buckle, to carry the hatchet in, is a very great convenience; for nothing is so likely to be lost as a hatchet. We were three days without one in very bad weather, having dropped it on the route.

Tents are not indispensable, but comfortable, especially along the shore and in very warm weather, when moschetoes are plenty.

A good, large, heavy Mackinaw blanket is beyond comparison the most necessary article to the voyageur and woodsman. With all these preparations, the lover of exercise and adventure may count upon as much enjoyment, on a trip through the Lake Superior country, as he will find at home. If he is badly provided, he will be inefficient and uneasy—will suffer many privations, and perhaps injure his health.

SECRETARY WALKER'S REPORT.

We have been hitherto in vain waiting, with no small anxiety and impatience, for the Treasury Report, accompanied by its tables, that we may give both a thorough examination and review. The tables we consider all-important, since we presume much of the matter of the Report is founded upon them; and we have good reason to believe we shall be enabled to show that existing facts will prove them to be very erroneous in many particutars.

We are led to this conclusion from the circumstances that what the Report says about the non-advancement of wages is wholly incorrect. And a highly intelligent gentleman, connected with this work, now in the eastern States, where he is travelling for the purpose of collecting information and statistics, writes us, that he has visited fifty large manufacturing establishments, in not one of which had Mr. Walker's queries made their appearance.

The regret we have felt at the delay in obtaining the Report, with its tables, is, however, in no small degree abated from the opportunity it affords us of inserting the following able review of the former, from the pen of the Hon. Nathan Appleton, of Boston—a gentleman than whom, from his high attainments, no one is better qualified to enlighten the public mind on any subject; but who is pre-eminently able on that of the home industry, from his familiarity with it in all its details, as evinced by the clear and masterly style in which he advocated it while a member of Congress. We feel assured, therefore, that although the following expose, by Mr. Appleton, of the erroneous views of Mr. Walker has already been published, the readers of the National Magazine will be much pleased that we have here placed it on record, for more permanent and convenient reference than can be made to it in the columns of a newspaper.

THE REPORT OF THE SECRETARY OF THE TREASURY.

The Report of this officer is always read with a good deal of interest. It relates to one of the most important departments of the Government; to that Department, at any rate, which sustains all the others. It is, besides, made the duty of the Secretary, in his annual Report, in addition to the estimates of the public revenue and public expenditures, to lay before Congress "plans for improving or increasing the revenues from time to time," being, as expressed, "for the purpose of giving *information* to Congress."

The theory of our Government is, that it is a Government of the People. The early practice under it was for the people, by their delegates in the two Houses of Congress, to originate the laws intended for their own government, leaving the Executive branches to their appropriate duty of carrying them into execution. The theory of monarchy is, that all laws emanate from the Sovereign, and his Ministers only have the initiative of them. General Jackson was the first President who undertook to practice upon the monarchical theory. His successors of the same dynasty follow his example; and we are here, in this Secretary's Report, presented, not with a *plan*, but arguments in favour of a *plan*, to change entirely the system by which our revenue has been collected since the establishment of the Government. This system, more especially adopted in 1816, and sustained for thirty years by all our subsequent legislation, is pronounced by this modest servant of the people as "*unequal, unjust, exorbitant, and oppressive.*" This system he proposes to change in favour of one of which he gives us, in many words, a confused outline.

We propose to examine, with all the respect due to a high officer of the Government, some of the assertions, theories, and speculations contained in this very extraordinary Report.

His object, as we were long since informed by a letter under his hand, published in the newspapers, was to bring the tariff down to the "*revenue standard.*" Of course, much curiosity existed to learn what he understood or intended by this cabalistic phrase. Without finding any very precise definition of the term, we have no difficulty in getting at his meaning, especially after comparing it with the President's Message, in which the theory is more plainly stated.

A revenue duty is one not only producing revenue, but must be so constructed as to avoid in the slightest possible degree becoming protective. A revenue duty is antagonistical to a protective duty. A duty which, by design or accident, causes similar articles to those on which it is levied to be produced at home, so as to lessen the revenue, becomes thereby protective, and must be reduced. Discrimination may be made for revenue, but not for protection. A duty laid on articles of which none are imported cannot be *collected*, and is therefore clearly *unconstitutional.* These are the fundamental principles on which the new system is to be established. He thus states the object of the protective system:

"A protective tariff is a question regarding the enhancement of the profits of capital; that is its object, and not to augment the wages of labour, which would reduce those profits. It is a question of per centage, and is to decide whether money vested in our manufactures should, by special legislation, yield a profit of ten, twenty, or thirty per cent., or whether it shall remain satisfied with a dividend equal to that accruing from the same capital when invested in agriculture, commerce, or navigation."

It is difficult to say whether the above paragraph betrays a greater ignorance of the objects and grounds on which the protective principle was adopted and engrafted into our revenue system, or of the most common and universally admitted principles of political economy. The protective system was not introduced or advocated by the possessors of capital, nor for their benefit. It is a well known fact that they were, with few, if any exceptions, opposed to it. It was the patriotic democracy of the country which advocated and introduced the system. What was the argument? The country is wholly agricultural and commercial. In the existing policy of the world, we produce more than we can sell, except at prices miserably low. We have to buy our clothing, and other foreign productions, from abroad, at their own prices, in payment of which we are constantly being drained of our specie, to the derangement of our circulating medium, and paralysis of all business The proposition is to hold out inducements to the merchants to withdraw a portion of their capital from foreign trade, and employ it in manufactures and the domestic trade of their distribution. We shall thus withdraw a portion of our labour from agriculture, and convert producers into consumers. We shall thus furnish ourselves with at least a portion of the manufactures which we require, by the labour of our own citizens, and pay for them with those productions which we find no market for, or a poor one. We apprehend the question was never started in these discussions, whether there was not danger that those who should be drawn into the new occupations would make too much money; because in those days it was considered a settled principle, confirmed by all experience, that any business yielding profits above the average rates is sure to attract capital and labour into it, until the profits fall to the general level, or more usually for a time below it.

At any rate, the protective policy was adopted, and men of business employed their earnings in the new occupations to which they were invited by the policy and laws of the country, doubtingly and hesitatingly at first, but afterwards more freely and confidently. The more successful branch, and the one which has absorbed the greatest amount of capital, is the manufacture of cotton. The possession of the raw material on the spot, and the peculiar adaptation of machinery to produce great results in this manufacture, soon made it evident that the cotton manufacture was rapidly to become one of the leading interests of the country. Capital went into it freely and confidently. Its rapid extension has no parallel, and is only equalled in the corresponding reduction in the price of its fabrics. Its success furnishes the only ground of its denunciation. The manufacturers are growing too rich. That is the whole burden of the report. *Special legislation* in their favour. "*Another form of privileged orders.*" We regret to see a high officer of the Government descending to use the stereotyped slang of the party newspapers. But what we pass by in silence in the Evening Post, or in the ramblings of the laborious Bundelcund, ought not to pass without censure when coming from a Secretary of the Treasury.

In carrying out his views, we find some very extraordinary assertions. For instance, "Experience proves that, as a general rule, a duty of twenty per cent. ad valorem will yield the largest revenue." We should be glad to know what experience. Is it that of Great Britain, whose necessities require her to push her duties up or down to what she finds by experience to be the highest revenue standard? Her duty on tea is 2s. 1d., or 50 cents the pound, on all teas without discrimination, being at least 200 per cent. on the cost, producing, for the year ending January, 1842, the comfortable sum of £3,978,000 as revenue. Her lowest duty on sugar that year was 24s. the cwt., or 5¾ cents the pound, producing a revenue of £5,120,000, upwards of twenty-four and a half millions of dollars. It is true this duty on sugar has since been reduced, but for relief, not for revenue. Her duties on wines are 5s. 6d. the gallon, rum 9s. 4d., brandy 22s. 6d., tobacco 3s. the pound, producing together eight millions of pounds, or about forty millions of dollars, at rates varying from 300 to 900 per cent. on the value. So much for the experience of England. What is our own? Our highest tariff was that of 1828. Our greatest revenue was under it, for the year 1831, being $30,312,851 nett, at rates of duty averaging 41 per cent. on imports subject to duty. (See Doc. No. 3, 28th Congress.) Our lowest tariff was in operation in 1842, being less than 24 per cent. on the dutiable imports, and produced a nett revenue for the year of $12,780,173! So much for our own experience. We think it would puzzle Mr. Secretary Walker to furnish the evidence of what he pronounces to be so clearly proved.

Another assertion of Mr. Walker is, that the wages of labour have not augmented since the tariff of 1842, but that they have in some cases diminished. Now, we find on inquiry of the different agencies at Lowell, that the average earnings of the operatives have increased full one-third since the disastrous year 1842, or from $1,50 to full $2 per week for females, exclusive of board. But even this does not present a fair view of the full effect of the tariff of 1842, upon labour. At that time the proprietors were receiving no dividends, and waiting the action of Congress before deciding to stop the mills. Had Congress adjourned without the tariff, more than one-half the mills in New England would have stopped work at once. The reason assigned by the Secretary for his supposed fact, is entitled to some notice. "As the capital invested in manufactures is augmented by "the protective tariff, there is a corresponding increase of power, until "the control of such capital over the wages of labour becomes irresistible." That is to say, the greater the inducement to build mills, and the greater the amount invested in works which are wholly unproductive without hands to work them, the greater is the power of the mill-owners to drive hands into them; in other words, the power of labour to get high wages diminishes in proportion as the demand for it is increased. If a greater solecism was ever put upon paper, we should be glad to see it.

The whole force of the report is levelled against the tariff of 1842, as if that were some new abomination. It is pronounced "unequal, unjust, exorbitant, and oppressive."

Now, the fact is, the tariff of 1842 was modelled upon the tariff of 1832. That was adopted as the groundwork; the principle was the same, as a comparison will show in the following table:

	Duties per tariff of 1832.	Of 1842.
Woollens,	50 per cent.,	40 per cent.
Flannels,	16 cts. square yard,	14 cts. square yard.
Pig iron,	10 dols. per ton,	9 dols. per ton.
Rolled iron,	30 do	25 do.
Other bar iron,	18 do	17 do.
Salt,	20 cts. per bushel,	8 cts. per bushel.
Brown sugar,	2½ cts. per pound,	2½ cts. per pound.
Cotton bagging,	3½ cts. sq. yard,	4 and 5 cts. sq. yd.
Cotton minimum white goods,	30 do	20 do.
Cotton minimum dyed and printed,	35 do	30 do.

It will be seen that there was a general reduction on the highest rates of duty. That is to say, the tariff of 1842 is less productive than that of 1832. The only exceptions are in the articles of sugar and cotton bagging, which cannot certainly be laid at the door of the Northern manufacturers. It is true, the general rate of ad valorem duties was raised from 25 to 30 per cent., but this was done wholly for the purpose of increasing the revenue. It becomes, then, a matter of some interest, to inquire under what circumstances the tariff of 1832 was passed. The national debt had been paid off, and a great reduction of the revenue was necessary. The Jackson party had decided majorities in both Houses of Congress; in the House of Representatives consisting of upwards of thirty. The tariff of 1832 was prepared with great care, on the principle, of raising the necessary revenue, so disposed as to afford protection to our own industry in all its branches. Many of the protectionists, however, were not satisfied with the duty on woollen manufactures, high as it was, as not corresponding with the high duty on wool. The bill passed the House of Representatives by a vote of 132 to 65. It is somewhat curious to find among the yeas the names of James K. Polk and Cave Johnson. Of the nays, more than one-half consisted of those who voted against the bill as not high enough on woollens, leaving not more than thirty who voted against the bill on principle, consisting of Mr. McDuffie, and his converts to the forty-bale theory. In the Senate, the same bill, fortified in the article of woollens, by an addition of seven per cent., passed by a vote of 32 to 16—Mr. Dallas being among those voting in the affirmative. Such was the position of the Democracy of the country, on the principle of discrimination in favour of protection in 1832. None of its deformities were then discovered. But South Carolina did not like this bill. She adopted the theory that it imposed a tax of 40 per cent. on her exports. She threatened nullification and rebellion. General Jackson, at the next session of the same Congress, proposed a reduction of the tariff, in order to appease this froward State. He admitted that "it would seem a violation of public faith, suddenly to abandon the large interests which had grown up under the implied pledge of our legislation," and added "that nothing could justify it but the public safety, which is the supreme law."

The pretext for reduction was, that the tariff would produce too much revenue—that Congress had not carried out the reduction proposed by the Secretary of the Treasury, in a bill which he had at the previous session furnished to the House of Representatives, at their request. There was no foundation for this pretext, as was afterwards admitted by the Secretary himself, in a document which he was called on to furnish, (Doc. 97, 2d sess., 22d Cong.,) showing that the tariff of 1832 actually made greater reductions than those proposed in his own bill.

But under this pretext, what was called Verplanck's bill was brought forward, and the Jackson party were most of them drilled up to the mark of undoing their own work of the preceding session. But without success; for, after a violent effort, Verplanck's bill was abandoned. It was in this state of things, that Mr. Clay's Compromise bill was taken up by the defeated party and carried through the House, against the votes of the warmest friends of the protective system. Mr. Clay acted under the mistaken idea, put forward by the Administration, that the tariff of 1832 would produce more revenue than was required for the administration of the Government. Experience, and our present debt, have proved the contrary.

But with what face can the party, nay, the very men by whose agency the tariff of 1832 was passed, now come forward denouncing the tariff of 1842—the same in principle, but milder and more moderate in all respects than that of 1832—as the abomination of abominations—as a new concoction of concentrated Whiggery? Such is the spirit of party. The Baltimore Convention considered the vote of South Carolina necessary to secure the election of Mr. Polk, and the word went forth, *down with the tariff.* The affiliated presses of the party take up the note, and down with the accursed, the Whig tariff of 1842, is reponded from the same throats which cried ay, in favour of a similar tariff in 1832. Thus are the great interests of the country made the sport and football of selfish politicians, in their eager pursuit of office. It is this action of it which makes so many of the statesmen of Europe, and some among ourselves, pronounce our system a failure. We do not agree with them. With so much of good we must expect some evil. We believe in a recuperative power, which will eventually set things right. We must expect wrong measures, but they will work their own cure. It is possible to sound the depths of Democracy too low.

Mr. Walker expresses particular dislike to specific duties, including the cotton minimums, which are, in fact, merely specific duties. In this he goes against the experience of the whole world. He will not find a mercantile man in the whole country to agree with him. The difficulty of guarding against fraudulent invoices has increased with the increase of our trade, and its tendency to fall into the hands of unscrupulous foreigners, with whom the custom of double invoices is notorious.

The carrying out Mr. Walker's views in this particular, would not only put our whole system of revenue in peril, but introduce the widest system of fraud and perjury which the world has ever seen. Many of the continental tariffs, and the famous Zoll-Verein in particular, are wholly specific, manufactures of cotton, wool, and silk, being raised by weight. The British tariff admits ad valorem duties in the fewest possible cases, and then subject to a home valuation, at which the Government officers are at liberty to take the goods, on paying an addition of ten per cent. Mr. Walker's objection that specific duties, and especially the cotton minimum, throw unequal burdens on the labouring classes and poor, compared to the rich, has hardly the shadow of truth to support it; so far as respects the cotton market, not even the shadow. It is a fact, which must be admitted by all who look into the matter, that all the coarser manufactures of cotton—all which possess substance, and are most profitable in use by the labouring classes, are furnished by the American manufacturer on better terms than they can be had in any other part of the world. In this they challenge inquiry. The constantly increasing demand for export for this description of goods, to markets in which they meet the British in full competition, would seem to be sufficient evidence of this fact; unless, indeed, one would adopt the discovery of the sagacious Bundelcund, that *the manufacturers sell their goods abroad at one-half the prices which they obtain at home.* The Secretary quotes from Document 306, 1st sess., 28th Congress, (Mr. McKay's Report,) to show the high duties payable on certain manufactures of cotton, adding: "This "difference is founded on *actual importation*, and shows an average dis-"crimination against the poor on cotton imports of 82 per cent. beyond "what the tax would be if assessed upon the actual value." Now, with all due respect for Mr. Walker, we must say, *there is no such thing*. He is utterly mistaken. No such importations have been made. No such horrid exaction has been practised upon the poor. His authority is the sixth column of table C, appended to that Report, 306, stated in the table itself to be, "The rates ad valorem of the duties under the present law, " *as estimated* in statements made to the committee, upon the authority " of known and respectable merchants and importers in several of the " large commercial cities." We find the explanation on page 72 of said Report, in the "Price Current issued by Stewart, Thomson & Lay, " Manchester, January 31, 1843; with the *rate of duty* under the present American tariff added." Here we find precisely the same rates of duty, being those which *would be charged*, on certain goods, *if imported*, as those given previously in the sixth column, very kindly estimated, no doubt, by some Manchester agent. Amongst them we find "stouts or domestics," (imitations of ours,) estimated to pay upwards of 100 per cent. duty, whilst they were actually selling lower in Boston and New York than the prices quoted in this very Manchester price current. This gross mistake of Mr. Walker is the more extraordinary, since the second column of this same table C gives the actual rates ad valorem on goods coming under the cotton minimums, as *made up at the Treasury*, upon the actual imports, being on the 20 cent minimum 49 per cent., and on the 30 cent minimum 43 per cent. Thus vanishes this grievance of the poor into thin air. But why, then, this heavy minimum duty on goods which require no such protection? The whole matter is fully explained in the memorial of the citizens of Boston interested in the cotton manufacture, (Document 461, 2d session, 27th Congress,) from which we make the following extract from page 48:

"The foregoing analysis will have shown that the question of a protective tariff bears very differently on different branches of the cotton manufacture. The coarser fabrics, with which we supply foreign nations at the rate of about three millions of dollars per annum, in free competition with the British, it is quite obvious, *are very little if any way affected, by any tariff whatever*. The only effect of opening our ports to this description of goods at a very low duty, or no duty at all, would be the influx of the inferiour British imitations made from Bengal cotton, but which would prove to the consumer intrinsically dearer than our own manufacture made from American cotton. So far as relates to the finer qualities of plain cottons, a very moderate square yard duty will protect the manufactures now in existence. It is in reference to the article of printed calicoes, and other fancy goods, that the question of the tariff assumes its chief importance."

The greatest importance of the minimum consists in its tendency in constantly carrying the manufacture up into the finer and higher branches. In this particular it was never more effective than at the present moment. We agree to Mr. Walker's discrimination of " maximum revenue duties upon luxuries." It is not easy perhaps to say what are luxuries in this country, where labour has its luxuries as well as the rich; but we aver, so far as the cotton manufacture is concerned, that the effect of the minimum is to collect a high duty on the finer and more costly branches of the manufacture, without affecting the lower branches at all; so that, as a revenue duty merely, acting upon luxuries, it is the most efficient mode which can be adopted.

The chief argument, however, which is expected to overthrow the tariff, lies in the fact that the manufacturers are just now sharing large dividends—that the business is, in fact, too profitable. This is accompanied in the report by the allegation that the principle of protection is legislating for the *rich*, for *classes*, for the benefit of *capital*, for the *few* instead of the *many*. However false and absurd, this is the *cry* which is expected to break down the tariff, and there is little doubt it will succeed; for the party have set up the *cry*, and they have decided majorities in both branches of Congress. Against such a cry, what will it avail to state that this prosperity is but the reflux of that tide whose long ebb in 1842–3 filled the hearts of the manufacturers with dismay? that action and reaction are as constant in the world of trade as in that of nature? that, at all events, the regulating power is in full action, by which all profits in different occupations are soon brought to the same level by the unfailing laws of competition? It is true that manufactures have shared fully in the general prosperity, and there are instances in which the profits of the last year have reached twenty per cent. There are at Lowell nine companies manufacturing cotton, employing a capital of nine and a half millions. Of these, five made no dividends during the entire year 1842. The dividends for the four years 1842, 1843, 1844, and 1845, average eleven and a quarter per cent. per annum on the capital, from which should be deducted about three-fourths per cent. for the risk of fire, leaving the actual nett earnings not over ten and a half per cent. per annum. This is something more than the same establishments will average since they have been in operation; and these are undoubtedly the most successful concerns in the country, far above the average. Another important fact: the greatest profits have been made by those mills making goods for foreign markets, on which, of course, the tariff has no bearing. About one-third of this profit has been in the advance of the raw material during the year, the most successful establishments having laid in their entire stocks before the advance, equal to about two cents the pound.

There is also abundant evidence that the cotton manufacture has been favourably affected in an equal or greater degree in Great Britain, and that their spinners have realized greater profits on their capital than any of our establishments whatever. What a bugbear is this clamour about enormous profits, special legislation for classes, and for the rich, when analyzed.

So far as there is any tangible argument in the report, it is the argument of the forty-bale theory, that a tariff of duties upon imports is in fact a tax upon exports. For instance, "the true question is whether the farmer and planter shall, to a great extent, supply our people with cheap manufactures purchased abroad with their agricultural products, or whether this exchange shall be forbidden by high duties on such manufactures, and their supply thrown as a monopoly, at large prices, by high tariffs, into the hands of our own manufacturers." This is precisely the language used by Mr. McDuffie in nullification times. He follows him in saying that we demand specie from all the world to an extent which they cannot supply; at the same time, with singular inconsistency, he advocates the sub-Treasury, on the ground that it will facilitate a larger supply of American gold coin, and thus give greater security to all the business of the country. It is singular that the Secretary should have adopted this exploded theory at a time when the South is so decidedly repudiating it; and that he should use this argument in order to carry

Northern votes, whilst the theory, as expounded by Mr. McDuffie, attributed the peculiar prosperity of the North to the very system of protection, only to be accounted for on the ground of its being a robbery committed on the South.

The Secretary complains that the manufacturers have not generally answered his circulars. Is that surprising? We know that some answers were prepared, which were kept back on the ground that it was due to a proper self-respect. Mr. Walker had given public notice that his mind was made up to a reduction of the tariff according to a scale established in his own mind. His object, therefore, was not to collect information in order to form an opinion, but apparently to find evidence against the manufacturers. They thought, besides, that the proper tribunal for such an investigation is a committee of Congress. To such a committee they will readily exhibit every thing connected with the subject.

It would occupy too much space to notice all the curiosities of this Report. The Secretary is utterly opposed to countervailing restrictions, as inefficacious—differing in this from the high authority of General Jackson, and in opposition to the testimony of Mr. Huskisson, who justified himself for his relaxations of the navigation laws on this ground solely. He quotes the repeal of duty on cotton as a voluntary concession, when the fact is notorious that it was only owing to the representations of the Manchester Chamber of Commerce that the Americans were supplanting them in foreign markets in heavy goods, and that the small duty of 2s. 11d. the hundred weight operated to that extent as a bounty to their rivals. What was the British duty on cotton before the establishment of our tariff? From 1809 to 1814, 25s. 6d. the hundred weight, or 5¾ cents the pound. From 1815 to 1819, 8s. 6d. the hundred weight, or nearly 2 cents the pound. He greatly over-estimates the value added to the cotton crop by manufacture; he supposes it increased in value sevenfold, which is nearly double the fact. He recommends, in case of war, a reduction of duties in order to increase the revenue. Mr. Gallatin, when Secretary during the war of 1812, recommended that the duties should be doubled, which advice was adopted. In fact, Mr. Walker seems to be acting under the spirit of contrariety to every thing tried and established.

We pass by his proposition of carrying on the whole trade of Canada through the United States; his drawback of one half the duties where American exports would be taken in exchange; his population of eight hundred millions disabled from purchasing our products, by our high duties on all they would sell in exchange; the unfettered power of agriculture to break down all restrictions; his inflated currency repealing the operation of the tariff, &c.

In all honesty and sobriety we feel bound to say, that such a number of unwarrantable assumptions, and such a medley of puerile crudities, never before issued from any department of our Government. But what of that? It is lauded to the skies in the organs of the party, as *a new revelation in political science*. The policy is to be carried out. So be it. If New York and Pennsylvania are sick of their prosperity under the protective system which they established, so be it. But let the additional imports of twenty or thirty millions per annum come in, in accordance with the object of the policy. Before the second year shall come round, *the currency will feel it, the labour of the country will feel it, Locofocoism will feel it*, or we are no true prophet.

WINDSOR LOCKS ON THE CONNECTICUT RIVER.

The Connecticut River, and the beautiful valley through which it runs, would lose nothing in a comparison with any stream in this, or any other country, for its picturesque scenery and its agricultural improvements—nor is there to be found on the habitable globe a population more industrious and enterprising. The principles of civil liberty are no where better understood, and were we asked to point out a spot in the United States, where the system of self-government was producing the richest fruits, we should not hesitate to name, as that happy spot, the Valley of the Connecticut river.

The spirit of the age would seem to have taken up its residence on the borders of this stream; everywhere in its vicinity is to be heard the hum of industry, while the cheerful and hardy population really appear as though their chief happiness consists in striving how much they can accomplish of the various business in which they are employed—not as though it were a toil, but as if voluntarily undertaken as a matter of amusement.

The following account of Windsor Falls will show what active and enterprising men can do to aid Nature in the multiplication of her powers, everywhere offered to the industrious as an incentive, but not everywhere brought into requisition, as along the borders of the Connecticut river.

We would recommend this site as one full of promise to those who may wish a location for manufacturing purposes.

EXTENSIVE WATER POWER AT WINDSOR LOCKS.

The Connecticut River Company was chartered by the General Assembly of Connecticut in 1825, for the purpose of constructing a navigable canal around the lower falls of the Connecticut river, between Enfield and Suffield, in Hartford county.

The company was organised, and stock to the amount of $203,500 was taken by the business men of the city of Hartford. The canal was opened for navigation in 1829. It commences at the head of Enfield Falls, is formed by an embankment of great width and solidity—made for several miles on the uniform rock formation in the bed of the river, carrying one unbroken level, six miles, to its termination in Windsor, at the village now called Windsor Locks, where three locks, of ten to twelve feet lift, form a connexion with the river below, on the level of tide water, twelve miles above the city of Hartford. The canal has an average width of about one hundred feet, the average depth being over eight feet, and the locks will admit the passage of boats of 60 tons burthen, and all the steamboats which navigate the river above Hartford. The head and fall of water, however, from the top water-line in the canal to low-water mark in the river is 32 feet. *The supply of water is unfailing, and of inestimable amount.* The most desirable choice of mill sites can be selected for two miles from the Locks upwards, lying between the canal and the river, on nearly all of which a rock foundation of red sandstone may be found, at convenient depth, which, being excavated, affords a cheap and valuable material for buildings. One of the best constructed railroads in this country, (the Hartford and Springfield line,) is in successful operation on the west margin of the canal, and directly in front of this immense water power, thus affording, at all seasons of the year, a direct communication within thirty minutes of Hartford or Springfield, six hours from Boston or Albany, and seven and a half hours from New York. These works are located in a rich and pleasant agricultural valley, well supplied with building materials, and are unsurpassed in facilities of access and transportation. The corporation own the mill sites, and over fifty acres of beautifully situated lots for dwellings and warehouses, contiguous to the railroad station; and the very low rates at which they offer permanent leases of lots and water power, and the invaluable facilities and inducements connected therewith, have led us to take this extended view of this invaluable location for many large manufacturing establishments, which appears thus far to have escaped general notice.

There are now running on this water power, one flouring mill, two saw mills, one sewing-silk manufactory, three paper mills, and there is another in course of erection. One of the mills, owned by Messrs. Persse & Brooks of New York, is the most extensive and productive of any on Connecticut river, and perhaps these are the only mills in New England which have not been short of water during the past summer.

There is an iron foundry, and a large machine shop, for the construction of all kinds of castings and machinery; a new building to be filled with thread machinery in the spring; a card-wire factory, and the extensive iron-works, and rolling mills erected by Messrs. Ripley & Co., during the past season. Two stores, and dwellings for more than thirty families, have also been erected during the past year.

This place is admirably situated for a large manufacturing town, and with proper encouragement by parties most interested, it is destined, ere long, to become one of the most growing and important situations in the beautiful Valley of the Connecticut river.

A LIST OF PATENTS

ISSUED FROM THE 1ST TO THE 20TH OF JANUARY, 1846, INCLUSIVE.

To Elijah Converse, of Cincinnati, Ohio, for improvement in Corn Shellers. Patented 7th January, 1846.

To Jehiel I. Farrand, of Port Byron, New York, for improvement in Raising Water from Wells. Patented 7th January, 1846.

To James Macgregor, Jr., of Welton, New York, for improvement in Stoves for heating apartments. Patented 7th January 1846, and antedated 22d December, 1845.

To Joseph C. Rich, of Penfield, New York, for improvement in Straw Cutters. Patented 7th January, 1846.

To James J. Mapes and William A. Cox, of New York city, for improvement in Evaporating Pans. Patented 7th January, 1846.

To Darius Goff, of Rehoboth, Massachusetts, for improvement in the mode of glazing Cotton Batting. Patented 15th January, 1846.

To Thomas A. Davies, of New York city, for improvement in Clocks. Patented 15th January, 1846.

To Harvey W. Sabin, of Gorham, New York, for improvement in Beehives. Patented 15th January, 1846.

To Horace H. Day, of New York city, for improvement in Portable India Rubber Boats. Patented 15th January, 1846.

To Joseph W. Harmon, of New York city, for improvement in preparing Caoutchouc, previous to grinding. Patented 15th January, 1846.

To Benjamin F. De Wolf, of Lansingburgh, New York, for improvement in Cooking Stoves. Patented 15th January, 1846.

To Thomas Hassard, of New York city, for improvement in Truss Bridges. Patented 15th January, 1846.

RE-ISSUES PATENTED.

To Erastus Corning and James Horner, of Albany, New York, (Assignees of Wm. Osgood and Ebenezer Hunt,) for improvemnnt in the Machine for making wrought-iron Spikes and Nails. Patented 14th March, 1834. Re-issued 15th January, 1846.

To Samuel F. B. Morse, of New York city, for improvement in the mode of communicating information by signals, by the application of Electro-Magnetism. Patented 20th June, 1840. Re-issued 15th January, 1846.

DESIGNS PATENTED.

To William and Nathan H. Jackson, of New York city, for Design for Parlour Grate. Patented 7th January, 1846.

MANUFACTURING STATISTICS

OF THE CITY OF PROVIDENCE, RHODE ISLAND.

We have great pleasure in presenting to our readers the manufacturing statistics of the flourishing City of Providence, Rhode Island, and should be most happy to accompany them with some account of its rise and progress; but in the absence of the power to do justice to its merits, we must postpone that pleasure for the present, with the remark that no city in the Union contains a more active, intelligent, and prosperous population; and, consequently, nowhere are the real principles of republican liberty better understood, nor the rich fruits which result from it more manifest. Indeed, the State of Rhode Island exhibits most strikingly the vast advantages to be derived from a multiplicity of pursuit, and is entitled to the honour of having been foremost to introduce into the United States the immense advantages derived from labour-saving machinery. On some future occasion, we hope to have it in our power to go fully into the history of the introduction of manufactures among us; and it will then be no less our duty than our pride to do ample justice to the City of Providence, and the very remarkable State of which it is the capital.

Meantime, we present the following tables of her manufactures:

Iron Works, Furnaces, Machine Shops, and Screw and Butt Companies, in Providence.

NAMES OF OWNERS OR COMPANIES.	No. of Mills or establishments.	No. of Furnaces.	Tons of iron manufactured in year, or used.	Tons of castings turned out in year or used.	Grosses of Srews or Butts turned out in year.	Gross value of manufactured goods	No of hands employed.	Horse power of steam machinery	Tons of coal consumed in one year	AGENTS.
New England Iron Company,*	1	8	8,000	....	....	$350,000	200	150 two engines.	5,000	A. Hodges.
New England Screw Company,	1	.....	1,000	....	1,250,000	200,000	400	80	1,000	A. Hodges.
Thurston, Greene & Co., Machine Factory,	1	1	700	....	....	150,000	120	16	150	Managed by owners.
Providence Machine Company,†	1	.....	....	....	....	50,000	60	....	.....	T. J. Hill.
High Street Furnace and Plough Company,	1	.....	....	900	....	56,000	64	10	400	J. H. Holden.
Franklin Foundry and Machine Company,	1	2	....	500	....	125,000	130	15 and water.	250	C. Babcock.
Eagle Screw Company,	1	.....	....	....	....	70,880	100	50	600	W. G. Angell.
Wm. Field & Co., Machine Factory,	1	.....	200	....	....	75,000	50	25	250	Managed by owner.
New England Butt Company,	1	.....	150	20	2,150	15,000	20	6	150	J. P. Mumford.
Norton Furnace,	1	1	....	500	....	30,000	50	6 and water.	100	A. A. Lincoln.
Fuller's Furnace,	1	.....	....	11,000	....	50,000	45	15	400	Managed by owner.
Phœnix Foundry and Machine Factory,	1	1	250	650	....	85,000	44	14	200	G. B. Holmes.
City Machine Company,	1	.....	....	50	....	20,000	20	6	75	H. C. Mathewson.
I. C. Fuller's Foundry,	1	.....	....	600	....	36,000	32	14	250	Managed by owner.
L. P. Mead & Co., Furnace,	1	1	....	500	....	40,000	35	8	200	do do
Bancroft & Co., Iron Works,	1	.....	....	700	....	150,000	150	25	1,000	do do

* This company have now in course of erection nine extra furnaces.

† The immense works erected near the depot of the Stonington railroad belong to this company.

Cotton and Woollen Factories, Print Works, and Dying and Bleaching Establishments, in Providence.

NAMES OF OWNERS OR COMPANIES.	No. of mills or estab'mt.	No. of Spindles.	No. of Looms	No. of Cards.	Printing machines.	Pounds of cot. or wool consumed during yr.	Yds of cloth manufactured.	Yds of cloth printed, dyed, or bleached.	What description of cloth.	Gross value of manufactured goods about.	No. of hands employed	Horse power of steam machinery.	Tons of coal used in y'r.	AGENTS.
Christian Hill Cot'n and Wool'n Fact'y and Pr t W'ks	1	1,300	24	14	1	234,000	312,000	912,000	cot. & wool	$70,000	40	30	500	Royal Sibley.
Steam Cotton Mill,	1	10,028	240	....	....	250,000	1,100,000	....	fine shirt'g	130,000	260	80	700	J. M. Fisher, agt & treas.
Elm Street Woollen Mill,	1	......	24	4	....	70,000	500,000	....	cot. & wool	100,000	30	25	400	G. A. Allen & Co.
Providence Dying and Bleaching Company,*	1	......	....	....	....	....	....	15,565,000	cotton	156,000	230	200	2,000	W. C. Snow.
Rhode Island Dying and Bleaching Company,*		......	....	....	....	....	....	6,473,000	do	90,000	70	60	1,250	Samuel Dexter.
Canal Bleachery,*	1	......	....	....	....	....	....	9,360,000	do	50,000	60	60	800	E. S. Rhodes.
Fletcher & Co.'s Works,	1	3,000	....	28	....	230,000	braids and	cot. yarns.	....	93,900	100	100	500	Managed by owners.
Canal Print Works,*		......	....	....	3	......	....	800,000	cot. hdkfs."	60,000	25	15	250	A Shinkwin, owner.
Phillip Allen & Co.'s Print Works,	1	no re	t'rns											
Wonasquatucket Print Works,*		......	....	....	6	....	....	8,400,000	....	400,000	450	100	4,500	T. Sprague & Sons, own.
Isaac Hartshorn Co., India Rubber Factory,		manufacture shoes to an amazing extent.						....	....	....	100	30	130	Managed by owner.

* The value of the cloths will be found in the different mills where made; that given to each establishment, is the charge for printing, dying, or bleaching.

MINING AND OTHER INTELLIGENCE,

BY THE LAST STEAMER FROM ENGLAND.

We find in the National Intelligencer of the 27th ultimo, in the letter of their European correspondent, dated January the 1st, the following paragraph:

> "At the present session of the French Councils-General of Agriculture, Commerce, and Manufactures—of whose origin, functions, and composition, you shall have a sketch hereafter—the protective policy decidedly prevails; all propositions for reduction of duties are rejected; and there will be final votes for enhancement in every case in which aid for any particular branch of industry shall seem needful. Each *protecting* nation is prone to urge the free trade theory on and against every other that follows its own system and practice. No continental government relaxes."

In addition to which we give the following, among other accounts, taken from the latest dates of the London Mining Journal, showing the care of the French Government for their mining industry, by the establishment of schools of mines at St. Etienne, and Alais.

How strongly do these things contrast with what is proposed by our own executive department! While all the European nations are fostering and protecting their industry, and establishing conventions and schools for their benefit—justly considering them as necessary to their very national independence—an American Secretary of the Treasury sends to the custom-houses under his control, and takes to the seat of government clerks whose duty it is to aid in the collection of the revenue, and actually employs these servants of the people to aid him in devising schemes to break down and destroy the manufactures of the United States!!

Thus a republican government is converted into a machine to mar the best interests of the people, while the monarchies of the old world are sedulously employed in devoting the public energies to build up and sustain every art, science, and mechanical pursuit. Surely these things ought to arouse the farmers, who can correct this procedure; for they, after all, will be as great sufferers as the manufacturers themselves, should Mr. Secretary Walker succeed in his designs to reduce the people of this country to the degrading conditions of "hewers of wood and drawers of water" to transatlantic masters."

The public mind is kept in a constant state of excitement, by the debates in Congress upon the Oregon matter, and the vastly more important question, of the home industry and the home market, kept in in jeopardy, to the destruction of future progress.

We are rejoiced to find, however, that the Legislature of the State of Pennsylvania are on the *qui vive*, thus proving that the people of that great *agricultural State* are not duped, either by the political, or theoretical, humbugs of the day.

With these few remarks, we give what we have found of interest in the London Mining Journal of the latest dates, viz:

ROYAL SCHOOLS OF MINES OF ST. ETIENNE AND ALAIS.

We gave, in a former number, a short account of the encouragement given by the French Government in the establishing of mining schools in the different mineral departments, where those who are intended to be brought up to mining pursuits are instructed *gratis* in every branch applicable to mining operations—such as a thorough knowledge of the different ores, the mineral and geological properties of the various districts of the kingdom, and the most effectual methods of working her coal, iron, lead, and other mines. The following are a few particulars respecting the Royal School of Mines of St. Etienne and Alais: The School of Mines of St. Etienne is established for the purpose of forming directors or mining captains for the working of the mineral resources, and the metallic or mineral foundries and forges. There are three different categories of students—viz, those commissioned after an examination; the students of the class of workmen who are to display a proof of the instruction they have received in the primary schools, so as to receive appointments by the direction or Mining Department of Paris; and the pupils who are studying for their own private future vocations. These courses of lectures, and the practical, as well as theoretical, methods of working of ores, are delivered by experienced professors or mining engineers. The director of this excellent establishment is M. Rousel Gall, chief engineer of mines.

The School of Master Miners of Alais, which has been but recently erected, will be opened before January next. The object of this institution is, to initiate the students into a thorough knowledge of all the elementary principles, and more particularly the most approved practical duties of the art of mining, for the formation of intelligent workmen, and persons destined to conduct the subterraneous works or excavations as foremen or master miners. The instruction will be given by an engineer-director of mines, by a mining-master, and a superintendent of mines. Thus the Royal Schools of Paris, St. Etienne, and Alais, will complete the hierarchy of instruction relative to the art of exploring and working of mines. One of the great advantages of these useful mining colleges is, that the students not only receive a thorough theoretical knowledge of every principle or system connected with mining in all its branches, as confined to the methods adopted in France, Belgium, Germany, Sweden, Russia, Wales, Cornwall, Staffordshire, Durham, Sunderland, and other parts of Europe, but the Brazils, and the whole of North and South America. Prizes are annually distributed to those who have made the most proficient progress in the various branches of mining industry. There are foundries, forges, smelting furnaces, ovens, &c., erected on the grounds belonging to the establishments, on a small scale, and models of every description of machinery for the working of mines, both steam and hydraulic, as well as some of the finest specimens of the ores and minerals from every part of the globe. One grand object the Government has in view is, the forming of experienced miners, so as to compete with the progress making on the continent and this country in the improvement of mines; but particularly the making of iron and steel, as well as machinery of every description, now that railways and steam navigation are making so rapid a progress in Northern Europe. To render the instruction at these mining schools more efficient, the students, accompanied by their instructors, descend, at certain terms, into the different mines in the vicinity, where the system of mine-working is practically demonstrated to them. Similar institutions to the above have been for many years established in Germany, which have produced some of the first miners and writers on mineralogy of the last half century. It is a remarkable fact, that it is the Government in all foreign countries that does every thing to improve the arts and sciences, commerce, mining operations, manufactures, agriculture, railways, steam navigation, &c., whilst England—the most commercial and enterprising nation in the world—has entirely to depend upon her national industry and private speculation for all her improvements, unassisted by the Government. This is an example for the Legislature of this country to adopt.

REVIEW OF THE MINING INTEREST.

In reviewing the state of the mining interest during the past year, there is much room for gratulation amidst the wide-spread tumult of railway speculation, which has now for two years overwhelmed the nation. All mining enterprise appeared to be annihilated, but it is pretty well apparent that that interest only lay dormant, and was gradually recruiting a giant's strength, to rise like the "phœnix." A gradual, and apparently permanent improvement, has been taking place in mining affairs, both in England, and many other parts of the civilized world. In Cornwall new sites have been taken, and old ones to a great extent, which had formerly been abandoned, taken up by capitalists, and worked in a spirited manner, to the advantage of themselves and the county—while, in the British mining share market generally, there is now a firmness and activity which has not been seen for years. In Spain, the several companies previously formed for working the extensive mineral districts of that prolific country, have been steadily progressing; even the arid plains and rocky steeps of the northeast of Africa, and the still more distant and less known lands in our own colonies in New Holland, are being eagerly explored for mineral wealth, and the discovery of its hidden treasures; the stars of Mexico and South America have appeared for some time past to be in the descendant, or to have arisen on other countries, and more promising climes—while, to come nearer home, we can with pleasure hail the present prospects of Ireland's mining districts, to which we have so often called attention, and which are at no distant period likely to prove, in every sense of the word, "a mine of wealth" to the "son's of Erin." This state of things proves that mining is becoming better appreciated, that instead of its being a wild, uncertain speculation, it has become a fair field for legitimate enterprise; and that while some few years since it was looked upon as an arena for gambling, in which the knave, or the merely fortunate, were only the successful players, it has now become a fair object of commercial enterprise, in which the merchant, the capitalist, and the private individual, may alike invest, with credit and with safety. We draw the attention of our readers to the generally improved prospects, which have begun to brighten the horizon of the mineral world, with unfeigned pleasure, and while we can thus look back on 1845 as a most favourable crisis to the mining interest, we believe we are fully justified in the anxious hope that the succeeding year will fulfil many of the expectations formed in the last, and keep up the favourable prospects of the rest. Let the system be but legitimately carried on, and its permanent success is certain.

The progress that is making in mining operations, not only in the United Kingdom of Great Britain, France, Belgium, Germany, and even Russia, but in Spain and South America, proves that a new stimulus has been given to the working of what is one of the richest resources of a country. England stands pre-eminent as a mineral kingdom. The working of her vast coal beds of Staffordshire, Newcastle, Durham, Northumberland, Sunderland, Wales, and Scotland—her rich copper and tin mines of Cornwall, and Wales—the iron, lead, and other ores, with which she abounds—have opened a wide field for speculation and industry; and rendered her one of the most flourishing mining countries of Europe, if not the globe. The introduction of railways, steam navigation, and iron ship-building, have caused a most extensive demand for iron; and each country of Northern Europe is now trying, not only to improve the quality of this valuable metal, but to supply the unprecedented demand that exists for it. France has always been attempting to rival with this country, whether in a commercial, manufacturing, or mining point of view, which has been the means of giving a stimulative antagonism to compete with the enterprising industry of this country. Half a century ago, mining operations in France were looked upon as only a secondary resource of the country, and even below that; but, during the last twenty years, mining has developed itself on a very extended scale—not only by the working of the extensive coal beds of the Loire and other departments, but particularly the iron ores.

CONSUMPTION OF SMOKE.

A simple, but effectual, form of furnace for steam boilers has been registered by Messrs. Galloway, of Knot Mills, Manchester, and by which, it is stated that the so-long desired object of preventing the emission of volumes of carbon is completely effected without valves or air-pipes of any description. The boiler adopted is the old circular one, the water completely surrounding the fire-bars and flue; in this are two distinct sets of fire-bars with their bridges, behind these one flue only tapers off to a size sufficient for the conveyance of the vapours, and, just behind the bridge, a perpendicular tube connects the upper and lower portions of the water through the most powerful part of the heat, and thus causing a highly useful additional heating surface. By this arrangement, and by firing each grate alternately, the black smoke from the newly made or stirred-up fire is brought in immediate contact, behind the bridge, with the flame and incandescence of the other fire, and thereby consumed, passing up the chimney in the form of invisible vapour, without any complex admission of air except through the fire-bars. We have not yet been able to inspect the plan, but it is certainly exceedingly simple, and is stated to be effectual.

DEMAND FOR, AND PRICES OF IRON.—LONDON, Dec. 20.

At a time like the present, when the increased demand for iron for railway purposes is considered as having a considerable influence on its manufacture, whether with reference to its cost or otherwise; and while various estimates have been made as to the capacity of our several works to supply the increasing demand at home and abroad, it may be well to refer to the prices of bar iron for the past fifteen years. In the year 1830 we find the price of bar iron in Wales quoted £5 10s.; in 1833 it realized £7 2s. 6d.; but again, in 1835, dropped to the former quotation; the next two or three years (remembered, doubtless, by many of our readers) created a demand, in some degree artificial, and we find a corresponding advance in price. Thus, in 1836 our highest quotation is £10, while in 1837 we have one as low as £6; a rally having, however, taken place in 1839, we again find bar iron quoted at £9 10s.—while in less than four years it is reduced below any price already quoted, as in the months of June, July, and August, 1843, bar iron was sold at £4 per ton. In the past year no higher price than £5 15s. was obtained; and at the commencement of the present year the price quoted was £6 to £6 10s. On referring to our present quotations, it will be seen that the price has advanced 50 per cent., the nearest figure being £9 15s. to £10 per ton.

When it is considered that the make of two works, with thirty furnaces, yield, taken at the rough, 3,000 tons per week, or 150,000 tons per annum, it requires little power of imagination to consider the importance to be attached to this branch of our manufactures. If we value the produce of these two works (Guest's and Crawshay's) at the price quoted in 1843, assuming the entire make to be converted into bar iron, we should find it to amount to £600,000 per annum—while, at the present prices, it would give a return of £1,350,000. In dealing with figures thus largely, and confining ourselves to two establishments alone, it would appear, at first sight, that we had rashly arrived at the results submitted. The natural question, however, arises—has the iron trade so altered within the past two or three years, that so large a difference can exist? and, if so, who were the sufferers, and in what ratio, by the depressed state of the market, and what the advantages derived by the capitalist and the working collier of the present day? and, moreover, how long may such be calculated upon?—these are questions we would submit, in the hope that those better informed than ourselves will take up the subject, with a view to its fair discussion. We believe our figures and our estimates to be correct, but shall gladly avail ourselves of the information of those more immediately connected with the question at issue.

PRICE OF IRON IN FRANCE.

From the London Mining Journal, of Dec. 27.

At the last sales at St. Dizier, the following were the quotations per 1,000 kilogrammes, or ton, delivered at St. Dizier: Half-rock wrought iron, made by coal, £16 to £16 10s.; flattened iron, £14. A sale of 1,000,000 kil. (or 2,000,000 lbs.) of white metal has been contracted for, to be delivered at St. Dizier, from the month of March, 1846, at the rate of £7 15s.

LATEST CURRENT PRICES OF METALS.—LONDON, Nov. 26.

	£	s.	£	s.	d.
Iron—Bar *a*, Wales...ton	0	0—	9	0	0
" London	9	15—	10	0	0
Nail rods, "	0	0—	10	10	0
Hoop, (Staf.)"	0	0—	11	10	0
Sheet, " "	0	0—	12	10	0
Bars, " "	0	0—	11	0	0
Welsh coal-blast foundry pig...	0	0—	5	10	0
Scotch pig *b*, Clyde...	0	0—	3	15	0
Rails	11	10—	12	0	0
Russian, CCND *c*....	0	0—	15	10	0
" PSI	0	0—	16	0	0
" Gourieff.....	0	0—	14	10	0
" Archangel...	0	0—	13	12	6
Swedish *d*, on the spot	11	10—	12	0	0
" Steel, fagt...	0	0—	15	15	0
" " kegs *e*.	0	0—	15	0	0
Copper—Tile *f*.....	0	0—	92	0	0
Tough cake.........	0	0—	93	0	0
Best selected........	0	0—	96	0	0

	£	s.	£	s.	d.
Copper—Ord. sheets.lb.	0	0—	0	0	10½
" bottoms..	0	0—	0	0	11½
Tin—Com. blocks *g*, cwt.	0	0—	5	3	0
" bars........	0	0—	5	4	6
Refined...........	0	0—	5	8	n
Straits *h*...........	4	10—	4	11	0
Banca.............	4	12—	4	13	0
Tin Plates—Ch. IC *i*, bx.	1	14—	1	15	9
" IX....	2	0—	2	1	0
Coke, IC.........	1	9—	1	10	0
" IX.........	1	15—	1	16	16
Lead—Sheet *k*......ton	0	0—	20	0	0
Pig refined........	0	0—	21	0	0
" common	0	0—	13	0	0
" Spanish, in b'nd	0	0—	19	10	0
" American	0	0—	17	15	0
Spelter—Cake *l*.......	0	0—	21	0	0
Zinc—Sheet *m*, export*.	0	0—	30	0	0
Quicksilver N.......lb.	0	0—	0	4	6
Refined Metal.....ton	0	0—	0	0	0

a Discount 2½ per cent.
b Nett cash.
c Discount 2½ per cent.
d Do. do.
e In kegs, ½ & ¼ in.
f Discount 3 per cent.
g Do. 2½ do.
h Nett cash, in bond.
i Discount 3 per cent.
k Do. 2½ do.
l Nett cash.
m Discount 1½ per cent.
N Do. 1¼ do.
* For home use it is £32 per ton.

The transactions in metals this week have been very limited; the only alterations to notice are in Scotch pig iron, which is rather firmer. Foreign tin, owing to the recent arrivals, a little lower, and spelter is also a shade lower than last week's *Mining Journal*—other metals at last quotations.

PRICE OF TIN PLATES AT NEWPORT.—Dec. 20.

	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
No. IC., per box	£1	13	0	*Wasters*..	£0	2	0
No. IX., per box	1	19	0	" ..	0	3	0
No. IXX., per box	2	5	0	" ..	0	3	0

GLASGOW PIG IRON TRADE.

DEC. 19.—The market has been quiet this week, caused most likely by the uncertainty which exists regarding political changes. Only two or three sales have taken place among the dealers, at from 72s. 6d., cash, to 76s., four months' bill, and we quote their price—buyers at 72s. 6d., cash, and sellers at 75s. to 77s. 6d. The makers' price continues 85s. to 90s. cash, on delivery, and sales have been made at the former price during the week.—*Glasgow Herald.*

DEC. 23.—Prices are said to have improved these two days past—founders supplying their immediate wants have had to pay 75s. nett. Several sales were made at 77s. 6d. and 80s., credit; while, at the same time, we believe, several thousand tons could have been procured at 72s. 6d., cash. The appearance of improvement is caused by our present political position—holders pausing until something definite takes place. This paper has, for some time past, been endeavouring to impress on the trade the propriety of an extension of malleable works, as a means of consumption for pig iron. We have just learned that an extensive firm, engaged in the manufacture of pig iron, have surveyed ground near Coatbridge, on which they are to erect a malleable work, on an extensive scale.—*Glasgow National.*

A GLANCE AT THE OLD WORLD.

WE have received, by the steamer, the leading Foreign Periodicals for January, and proceed to our usual glance at their contents—in some degree limited, however, in extent, from the detention of some packages at Boston.

SCIENTIFIC.

Mr. Regnault, an eminent French *savan*, has been making some experiments in steam, assisted by the minister of Public Works. Mr. R. gives the law of its elastic power up to 23 degrees centigrade, equal to 28½ atmospheres. He fixes the total heat of steam, at different pressures, from one-fifth of an atmosphere to fifteen, and the calorific capacity of water, from 0 to 190 degrees.

Watt supposed that the total quantity of heat necessary to transform a certain quantity of water was certain under a constant pressure. The number admitted was 650, but Regnault has ascertained this number constantly increases, from 622 under the pressure of one-fifth of an atmosphere, up to 670 under fifteen atmospheres.

The use of iron in the construction of steamers, as vessels of war, is constantly increasing. In connexion with this subject, we take the opportunity afforded us by one of the journals before us, to give a table of the strength of the East India steam navy at the close of the year 1844. It has been suggested, rather curiously, that if our difficulties with England came to a crisis, the first demonstration of an intention on her part to take possession of the disputed territory would come from the East Indies. This table will give us some idea of the condition of its marine:

	Tonnage.	Horse power.	Guns.		Tonnage.	Horse power.	Guns
Acbar	1,143	350	6	Medusa........(iron).	432	70	3
Auckland	946	220	4	Assyria.......... " ..	153	40	5
Sesostris	876	220	4	Comet.......... " ..	204	40	2
Semiramis	960	300	4	Conqueror...... " ..	—	—	-
Atalanta	617	210	3	Meteor .... " ..	149	24	-
Terence	664	230	3	Meance .... " ..	—	—	-
Cleopatra	770	220	6	Nimrod .... " ..	153	40	5
Hugh Lindsay	411	160	2	Napier.......... " ..	—	—	-
Victoria	705	230	3	Planet .... " ..	335	66	2
Zenobia	684	280	2	Satellite........ " ..	335	60	2
Indus.........(iron)	304	60	2	Nitocris........ " ..	153	40	2

Experiments are going on in England to test the merits of the wide and narrow gauge of railways. No positive result has yet been obtained sufficient to determine the question.

A great many inventions are being made public, to make railway travelling safer than it now is. Alarums are proposed, to warn the drivers of the locomotives, and indicators, to show the distance travelled in the darkest night, by machinery connected with the axle of the driving-wheel; and the valuable suggestion has been made that bells be rung every mile by the locomotive itself, as it passes along.

The leading article in the United Service Journal is a defence of the principle of submarine propulsion by the Archimedean screw. The writer asserts that sixteen block ships and frigates are now ordered to be fitted with engines and screw popellers by the admiralty.

The splendid Geological Survey of this State having had a tendency already to turn the attention of many students to the subject of natural history, we think the collectors of specimens, who contemplate forming museums or their own, will be pleased to know the directions which have been appended to an interesting account of the Dublin University Museum. They are as follows:

With respect to the larger animals, the mode of skinning is not generally known. No more of the skin should be cut than to extricate the body. The practice of the butchers, in cutting the entire length of the body, and also along each limb, should be avoided. The best method of preserving the skin is an arsenical soap, of the following proportions: Common soap, 1 lb.; powdered chalk, 1 lb.; arsenic, 3 oz.; oil of thyme, ¼ oz.

This is to be worked up with a little water, into a paste, and kept in a bottle. It is dissolved in water to about the thickness of milk, and applied with a brush.

Animals of great rarity should be, if possible, preserved in spirits, which should be changed within a short period.

Skulls, being exceedingly valuable to the scientific naturalist, should be preserved whenever practicable. The head is placed in a jar of water, until the soft parts become detached by maceration and putrefaction; then it should be washed clean, and placed in fresh water till it becomes totally free from any offensive smell. On being exposed to the sun and air it becomes beautifully white.

Skulls may be prepared in a short time, for being sent away, by cutting away the soft parts, scooping out the brain, rubbing the whole well with dry sand, sawdust or whiting, and drying in a draught of air. The teeth and jaws in an especial manner, and horns and hoofs of the animal, should be preserved.

In the preparation of birds, a large quantity of dry sand, sawdust, or powdered chalk, enables the operator to work with despatch and cleanliness, as such substances take up the blood and grease, and preserve the feathers from being stained. Arsenical soap is the best preservative. The heads and legs of birds should be preserved, when no other part can be saved. The eggs should be emptied by making a hole in the side, and placing a straw or quill in it. With a gentle breath the contents will be forced out around the straw. The shell should then be washed inside and out with the following varnish:

Common gum, ...	4 oz.
Gum tragacanth, ...	¼ oz.

These are dissolved in three pints of water, with twenty grains of corrosive sublimate and twenty drops of oil of thyme, dissolved in 4 ozs. spirits of wine; mix it well, and let it stand for a few days to separate. The clearest part is the varnish; the thicker, is a cement.

Snakes and lizards are best preserved in spirits; the larger snakes must of necessity be skinned. Care should be taken to preserve the head attached to the skin, and place both in spirits. Alligators, crocodiles, turtles, tortoises, should be cleaned and dried.

Fishes, when small, should be preserved in spirits. An excellent mode is thus described, which we republish with particular care, as the ichthyology of our inland lakes and waters will become more and more interesting as it is investigated, and collectors may have in this recipe an easy plan of preserving their specimens.

"Lay the fish on the lathe, with the side up you wish to preserve; then with a scissors cut it so as to separate the fins, skin of one side, mouth, and tail, from the body and viscera; spread the skin so obtained on a linen cloth, fold it over it, and subject it to some small pressure; remove the cloth, and take away any portions of fish which may appear easily removeable; then fold it in a dry cloth, and subject it again to pressure—a board and a few weights or stones will do it, if no other press be at hand; repeat the operation at intervals, until the skin becomes quite dry, and wash it well on both sides with the varnish already described When it is dry, sew it on strong paper, and you will have, as it were, a coloured drawing of the fish.

Casts of large fishes may be taken in plaster—or, by the daguerreotype process, a correct copy.

The cephalopoda, or cuttle fishes, are best preserved in spirits. The soft marine animals should be placed in a solution of kreosote, in water, or in spirits.

Land shells may be gathered by collecting moss from wet places, drying it, and pulling it to pieces over a white cloth or paper. Numbers of white shells will fall out.

Fresh water shells are taken with a small net. Marine shells, bearing mollusca, are found in sand or mud within tide marks, clinging to rocks, or hiding in sea weeds. For deep water, the oyster dredge, as modified by Professor Forbes, is recommended.

Crabs should be cleaned out as soon as possible, and varnished. Star fishes should be kept in sea water until they can be plunged into boiling fresh water, they should then be quickly taken out and dried. A few of the larger kinds require to be cleaned out. Sea urchins should be cleaned out, then plunged for a short time in boiling water and dried.

Beetles, when first taken, may be placed in a bottle having a little spirits in it; they can be then dried on blotting paper, and be put up on pins as usual.

Butterflies and moths may be placed in a box lined with cork, or pinned to the hat on the inside, temporarily. They are best obtained by rearing them from the caterpillar.

If trees be smeared at night with rum and sugar, laid on with a brush, they form complete traps, and insects are taken by this means in large quantities, in an intoxicated state. Nets are also used for the purpose of taking them "on the wing."

These simple rules should be preserved by every one who is fond of making collections.

The *Gutta-percha* is a gum lately introduced from Singapore; it possesses properties which render it superiour to caoutchouc: it is uninjured by heat or acids, is elastic, but possesses more tenacity, and, at 212° Fahrenheit, can be moulded into any form, or two pieces can be kneaded together by the fingers.

The *Frankfort Journal* has an extract from a letter from Rio, giving some further curious details of the diamond mines recently discovered in Brazil: "Hats full of the stones have been picked up and brought away. Two-thirds of them are of a yellowish tinge, and do not possess the usual hardness of the diamond, but many of them are very fine. The house of Bomfin and Reshesler, the largest diamond merchants at Rio Janeiro, at first threw doubts on the reality of this discovery of the mine; but notwithstanding this, every one who has diamonds on hand, is endeavouring to sell them at the best price they can obtain, fearing a great reduction in the value."

A discovery has been made in England of a gas, which, when projected forcibly from a tube, and coming in contact with a flame, will immediately extinguish it. It is supposed that it will come into use, but the constituents of the vapour thus used is not yet made public.

We regret that the non-arrival of the more scientific magazines will cause us to defer a portion of our scientific notices, until next month.

LITERARY.

Von Humboldt's Cosmos, two parts of which have been published here, continues to attract profound attention. He is now in his 77th year, apparently in possession of a sound constitution. It appears he was educated chiefly at Gottingen, and then, after a rapid journey through Holland, England and France, studied minery at Freyburg under Werner. He published in his 21st year an Essay on the Basalts of the Rhine. He continued his travels in Austria, Switzerland, and Italy, and reached Paris in 1798, where he remained some time. Galvanism, botany, the use of instruments, were all objects of his consideration and study. He proposed to explore Egypt, but the disturbances of the times prevented his success in that design. He, however, went to Cadiz in 1799, in order to get into Africa from that quarter, but on arriving there, was unexpectedly patronised by the Spanish Court, and this determined his visit to South America. There a splendid career opened before him in Physical Geography. In 1804 he returned to Europe, and commenced publishing his works, and continued it for twelve years.

His present work is likely to be his last, as his age forbids the idea of his continuing to bear the fatigue of mind and body which are necessary to produce such works as his. A very interesting review of his life and labours is to be found in the last number of the Quarterly.

We find in the same number an article on Ministerial Resignations, in which the present Corn Laws are most warmly defended, and a repeal of them rigorously opposed. The concluding paragraph gives the reader an idea of the article. "The short issue is Protection or no Protection, protection to wages as well as rents, protection to cotton and woollens as well as wheat and oats, protection to the town as well as the country, to the workshop as the farm, or, Ruin to all."

In the Foreign Quarterly we find a very elegant review of the life and works of Adalbert Von Chamisso, the author of Peter Schlemil. We regret we have not room to make even a summary of his strange and interesting career. The reviewer makes this fine remark : " Chamisso seems to have been sent into the world expressly to rebuke a selfish age by his noble example, and teach men of all parties justice, moderation, and obedience to the manifest will of Providence."

We perceive that the Compendium of Modern Civil Law by Ferdinand Mackeldey, and edited by Mr. Philip Ignatius Kaufmann of this city, has been published in London. Mackeldey was a Law Professor in the University of Marburg, and his work has gone through several editions, as many as eleven or twelve, and has been translated into French, Spanish, Russian, Greek, and English. The editor, Dr. Kaufmann is highly esteemed by his professional friends in this city. We cannot but notice one curious admission made by the English reviewer in relation to the study of law, as it bears upon a point accidentally mooted a few days since among some distinguished men, whether the American lawyers were not, as a body, at this moment, superiour to those of England. The reviewer says, " Jurisprudence is the only branch of the severer studies which seems to flourish in the United States, and *its range there is wider than that to which* English lawyers are accustomed. Many of the functions which are regulated according to our Ecclesiastical Courts, belong in America to the same Judges who administer the common law. The conflict of the laws of different States of the Union with each other, and of any of them with the laws of the U. States, gives rise to a class of questions only to be solved by principles common to all jurisprudence, and therefore intimately connected with the rules of the Roman law. Above all, there is some *systematic* instruction in jurisprudence, an advantage which in England is almost unknown."

After admissions such as these, which we might strengthen, by stating a remarkable deference paid to certain classes of principles decided in American Courts, by those in England, it does not seem an assertion far out of the way, that we have lawyers in this country equal to those of England at this time. Indeed this opinion is not ours alone. The legal fraternity of London propose themselves to erect a statue in honour of Justice Story.

An abusive work on the United States, by an anonymous writer, under the signature of RUBIO, is announced.

The Revue Nouvelle, now established in Paris, is supposed to be under the patronage and direction of M. Guizot

In Frazer's Magazine we find a masterly sketch of Macaulay. His manner in the street and in the House of Commons is thus described. " His face seems literally instinct with expression, the eye, above all, full of deep thought and meaning. As he walks, or rather straggles along, he seems as if in a state of total abstraction, and solely occupied with his own working mind. You cannot help thinking that literature with him is not a mere profession or pursuit, but that it has almost grown a part of himself, as though historical problems or analytical criticism were part of his daily and regular intellectual food. In the House, the same abstraction is still his chief characteristic. He enters with a certain pole star to guide him to his seat; how he reaches it, seems as if it were a process unknown to him. Seated, he folds his arms and sits in silence, seldom speaking to his colleagues, or appearing to notice what is going forward. If he has prepared himself for a speech, it will be remarked that he comes down much earlier than usual, being very much addicted to speaking before the dinner hour, when, of course, his memory would be more likely to serve him than at a later hour in the night, after having endured for hours the hot atmosphere of the house, and the disturbing influences of an animated debate. An opening is made in the discussion, and he rises, or rather darts up from his seat, plunging at once into the very heart of his subject, without exordium or apologetic preface. In fact, you have for a few seconds heard a voice pitched in alto, monotonous and rather shrill, pouring forth words with inconceivable velocity, ere you have become aware that a new speaker, and one of no common order, has broken in upon the debate. A few seconds more and cheers, perhaps from all parts of the house, rouse you completely from your apathy, compelling you to follow that extremely voluble and not very enticing voice in its rapid course through the subject on which the speaker is entering with a resolute determination, as it seems, never to pause. On—on he speeds, in full reliance on his own momentum, never stopping for thoughts, never stopping for words, never halting for an instant, even to take breath; his intellect, gathering new vigour as it proceeds, hauling the subject after him, and all its possible attributes and illustrations, with the strength of a giant, leaving a line of light on the pathway his mind has trod, until, unexhausted and apparently inexhaustible, he brings his remarkable effort to a close by a peroration so highly sustained in its declamatory power, so abounding in illustration, so admirably framed to crown and clinch the whole oration, that surprise, if it has even began to wear off, kindles anew, and the hearer is left utterly prostrate and powerless by the whirlwind of ideas and emotions that has swept over him."

We notice among the newly announced works in London, upwards of twenty of those of standard American authors—embracing the classics, theology, and jurisprudence.

FINE ARTS.

On the continent, and particularly in Germany, we find the various schools of painters busily engaged in the advancement of the art. The exhibitions are much commented upon. In Stuttgardt the liberals there have formed an association to effect the execution of a grand painting, to represent the Deliverance of the Human Mind, or Prometheus unbound. A celebrated artist, named Simon, of Frankfort on the Oder, has made the design. Prometheus is represented as fettered by the Fates on Caucasus, with his side lacerated by the eagle of Jove, under which is represented the Human Soul in the struggle for knowledge. He is surrounded by forms designed as personalities of the human race, clamouring for his deliverance. The critics pronounce the idea a political extravaganza.

In Rome there is a strong effort for fame-making by the German artists, Cornelius and Overbeck, a Dane, M. Jerichan, and Messrs. Gibson and Wyatt, Englishmen.

Glass has been japanned in England, and it is said the beauty of the effect is wonderful.

It is said that Dumas, the French author, is writing pieces for the Ambigu Comique in Paris, and that one of his dramas, the Mousquetaires, will produce him 50,000 francs.

NOTICES OF NEW BOOKS.

History of France, from the earliest period to the present time; *by M. Michelet, Professor Suppleant a la faculte des lettres, a l'ecole normale chef de la section historique aux archives du Royaume. Vol. I. Translated by G. H. Smith, F. G. S.* New York: D. Appleton & Co., 200 Broadway. Philadelphia: Geo. S. Appleton, 148 Chesnut street. 1845.

History is well said to be "philosophy teaching by example," and is, therefore, a study which none may neglect, who desire to store their minds with a knowledge of those events which have divided the families of mankind into nations, and given to each its peculiar habits, manners, customs, laws, and institutions. To trace the present state of European society in each country, back to the barbarism from which it originally came, is, therefore, undoubtedly, to store the mind with a succession of events, which can alone enable it properly to appreciate the mighty advances which have been made. And in no other history are these advances more manifest than in that of the French nation, to which the work before us is principally devoted—though it by no means confines itself within narrow limits, as it embraces such portions of the history of the rest of Europe as have any bearing upon the great and leading events in which France has borne a distinguished part. We have not regularly read this work, but from a careful examination of its contents, we can promise our readers that it contains a vast fund of information, collected, as the author tells us, from an immense stock of public documents and records to which he had access, and of which he thus speaks in his prefatory notice: "These papers and parchments, so long deserted, desired no better than to be restored to the light of day; yet they are not papers, but lives of men, of provinces, and of nations. First—the families and the fiefs blazoned in their dust, protested against their being forgotten. The provinces rose up, alleging that centralization had been deceived in supposing *them* annihilated. The ordinances of our kings asserted that they had not been repealed by the multitude of modern laws. Had one listened to them all, as the grave-digger observed of a field of battle, "not one ought to have been dead." And again he says, "The France of the present day, in its oneness and identity, may well forget that old heterogeneous France which I have described. The Gascon may not choose to recognise Gascony, nor the Provençal, Provence; to which I answer, that there is no longer a Provence, or a Gascony, but a France. This France I now present, with all the differences of its ancient and original divarication into provinces. The latter volumes of my history will show her in her unity.

We understand this work to have been published in numbers, and the first volume only is completed. The publication of the numbers, however, is continuing, and the second volume will soon be ready for delivery, which, when received, we shall duly notice.

Price 25 cents. The United States Government Report.

Narrative of the Exploring Expedition to the Rocky Mountains, in the year 1842, *and to Oregon and North California in the years* 1843-44, *by Brevet Capt. J. C. Fremont, of the Topographical Engineers; re-printed from the official copy, published by order of the Senate of the United States.* New York: D. Appleton & Co., 200 Broadway. Philadelphia: G. S. Appleton, 148 Chesnut street. Cincinnati: Derby, Bradley & Co., 113 Main street.

We are glad to see this publication disencumbered of the mass of astronomical observations, which are of no moment to the general reader. The report is of stirring interest, and we should presume, in this cheap form, every one who reads at all would wish to possess it. Nothing but a press of matter at this busy season, and the more important consideration of the proposed alteration in the Tariff, claiming all the space we have for matters connected with it, has prevented us from making an extract from the Report. This is now rendered less necessary, since, by the expenditure of the small sum of twenty-five cents, the whole of it can be purchased. Surely, at this price its sale must be very extensive.

A True Description of the Lake Superior Country; the rivers, coasts, bays, harbours, islands, and commerce, with Bayfield's chart (showing the boundary line as established by joint commission;) also, a minute account of the copper mines and working companies, accompanied by a map of the mineral regions—showing by their number and place, all the different locations; and containing a concise mode of assaying, treating, smelting, and refining copper ores, by John St John. New York: William H. Graham, Tribune Buildings. 1846.

As this is a book the value of which depends upon its accuracy, of which we have no means of judging, we cannot give a better idea of it, and the sources from which it is derived, than by giving the author's own account of it, by an extract from his advertisement in its commencement, which is in these words: "In preparing this work, therefore, I have had recourse to every available source of information, scrutinizing and comparing the different statements . . . Also, facts and information which I have been enabled to obtain only by perseverence, toil, and personal observation, are conjoined therewith, together with deductions sifted from concurring accounts by old voyageurs, half-breeds, and Indians. . . . For the geological and mineralogical information herein presented, I am indebted to Dr. Houghton's official reports, and perhaps, in a strict construction of these terms, am, in other parts, more a compiler than an author."

Wiley & Putnam's Library of Choice Reading. Volume 50.

Sketches from Life, by Laman Blanchard; edited, with a Memoir, by Sir Edward Bulwer Lytton, Bart. In two parts. New York: Wiley & Putnam, 161 Broadway. *Price thirty-seven and a half cents.*

If authors will write such capital books—yes, reader, there is no other word which will give an idea of these sketches—if, we say, authors will write such *capital* books, what are we to do if not allowed to praise them? Here have we been carefully looking over we know not how many volumes, not exactly anxious to find fault, but to seek out something for criticism, without success, and now we have taken up a book which suits us exactly. Sketches from life—yes, dear reader, they are sketches from life, and we advise thee to possess thyself of them, for they are delicious, and, what is more, there is an amazingly sound moral in them. We remember to have somewhere seen the motto, "*castigat ridendo mores*," and if ever it were applicable, it is so to this book; for while it conveys the most wholesome moral, it cannot fail to make thee laugh heartily—not *at* the author, but *with* him—for he has seen through this mystery of human life, to a great extent, and under the head of the commonest old saws, he draws out some of the most ludicrous contrarieties of our nature.

What think you of such heads for chapters, as that "Two heads are better than one," "That a burnt child often dreads the fire," "That old birds are not to be caught with chaff," "That what everybody says must be true," "Take care of the pence and the pounds will take care of themselves," and a hundred other of the tritest sayings. These surely do not offer much, either to instruct or amuse; but we tell thee, if thou wilt read this book, thou wilt find thyself vastly mistaken, for these apparently worn-out phrases are made the vehicles of conveying stores of brilliant wit, sound reasoning, and useful knowledge, and all with a dry humour that will cause thee much merriment, and leave thee a wiser man than they found thee.

Nos. 39 *to* 41.—*Oliver Cromwell's Letters and Speeches, with Elucidations, by Thomas Carlyle In two volumes.*

This work gives an account of one of the most extraordinary men of the seventeenth century, in Carlyle's usually vigorous and imposing style; and not only of the man, but of the events which took him from the quiet occupation of husbandry, and invested him with supreme power, we had almost said over the destinies of the world—certainly over those of Europe.

We have not yet found time to read this book, which it is our intention to do, and on some future occasion we shall give it a more extended notice. Meantime, we have looked through it sufficiently to know that it is of stirring interest, and as there is an undoubted, and not unimportant connexion, between the English commonwealth and our own political history, an account of the character of Cromwell, and the events of that remarkable period, from such a writer as Carlyle, cannot want for readers. We know it is thought by many that this nation (American) may claim the English commonwealth as a progenitor from whose lusty loins it sprung.

No. 48 *of the same series, is Fairfax's Translation of Tasso's "Jerusalem Delivered," with a critique by Leigh Hunt, a Life of Tasso, and one of Fairfax.*

We need say nothing of this book, it is so well known, and so justly estimated, it speaks for itself.

The Life and Times of Henry Clay, by Calvin Colton, author of the "Junius Tracts." "Four Years in Great Britain," "Four on the American Lakes," &c., &c. In two volumes. New York: published by A. S. Barnes & Co., 51 John street. 1846.

Of this book we shall have more to say hereafter, not having space at present to do it any thing like justice. Independently of the fact that it has strong claims upon a work like ours, from the close connexion which the illustrious citizen of whom it treats has always had with the system to which our pages are devoted, the work itself has high merit as a composition, and as a faithful chronicle of the part taken by Mr. Clay in the most brilliant part of our parliamentary history. We cannot, therefore, be content to pass it by, without an extended notice, and have only to regret that circumstances have put it out of our power to carry out our said intentions at the present time. In our next number we hope to redeem the promise now made, and in the meantime can only say, that no real friend of American industry, and of the mighty mind which has ever been faithfully devoted to its advancement, should be without that exhibition of the latter, which everywhere shines forth with such splendour and eloquence throughout the pages of "Colton's Life and Times of Henry Clay."

The Christmas Holydays in Rome, by the Rev. William Ingraham Kip, M. A., author of "The Double Witness of the Church," "The Lenten Fast," &c., &c.

—— rerum pulcherima Roma.—Virg. Georgics, ii., 534.

New York: D Appleton & Co., 200 Broadway. Philadelphia: G. S. Appleton & Co., 148 Chesnut street. 1846.

The facilities of modern locomotion are so very great, that to visit the once proud "mistress of the world" is no longer that rare thing it was wont to be in the olden time. Many are there of our own sons and daughters who desire to tread her classic soil, and call up the recollections of her former greatness, amidst the scattered remnants of her mighty ruins. Among these was the author of the Christmas Holydays, who, under this modest name, has given us a pleasing account of all that he saw during a winter's residence in "the Eternal City," which he has so arranged under various heads, as to give the reader the option of selecting the particular object most agreeable to his taste. Thus, Chapter 1st commences with his arrival at Civita Vecchia, his journey to Rome, and a view of the city by moonlight. Chapter 2nd—View from the tower of the *Senator*. Chapter 3rd—St. Peter's Church. Chap. 4th—the Christmas Services. Chapt. 5th—the Capitoline Hill; and thus, up to Chapter 23rd, which contains his farewell to Rome, he conducts us along with him to the various and most interesting objects which engaged his attention, dwelling just long enough to give a lively, graphic, and unvarnished account of each, mingling enough of classic story to refresh the memory without overloading it. He has dwelt particularly upon ecclesiastical matters connected with the Church of Rome, and has, we think, treated of her in a very Christian spirit—not sparing her defects, nor forgetting that there is much retained which every good Christian must admit to be catholic. Take the work altogether, and, though it has no pretension, it has considerable merit. The author's powers of description are good, and a perusal of his pages will leave on the mind of his reader very correct impressions of the scenes he describes, and quite a good opinion of the feelings, views, and principles of the narrator.

Wiley & Putnam's Library of American Books—No. 10. *The Alps and the Rhine, by J. T. Headley.* New York and London: Wiley & Putnam, 161 Broadway; 6 Waterloo Place. *Price thirty-seven and a-half cents.*

A description of the Scenery of the Alps has so often been essayed by travellers through those hoary regions—every thing that is magniloquent in language, and terse in style, has been so often resorted to, with a view to give to the untravelled, some idea of the majesty, the mightiness, and the sublimity of many a lofty peak and almost bottomless abyss, that it would seem an useless task to enlist the sympathies of the reader in favour of anything new on a subject so trite. Still we do not fear to recommend the work before us as a good one; nor do we hesitate to place on record the opinion, that he who wishes to be in possession of a good description of what the author admits to be indescribable, should not hesitate to become the purchaser of this book of Headley's; for though we fully agree with him, that "the Alps have nothing beyond them—nothing greater with which to compare them—and that they alone can illustrate themselves," yet are we free to confess that this number of the very valuable books of the series to which it belongs, brings before the reader a good idea of the sublimity of the scenery described The great and the awful in nature are here called forth and contrasted with the comparative nothingness of man, in a style grand, but not bombastic—"elegant, but not ostentatious."

No. 11 *of the same series is, "The Pilgrim in the Shadow of the Iungfrau Alp," by George H. Chever, D. D.* New York: Wiley & Putnam, 161 Broadway. 1846.

What Headley's book is in the grand and picturesque, this of Chever is in the beautiful—treating of Alpine flowers, picturesque cottages, a twilight evening and night in Switzerland, scenery on the lake of Zurich, poetry for Pilgrims, beauty of the lake of Como, Swiss character and freedom, &c., &c. We do not mean to intimate that the whole book is made up of these beauties—there are not a few descriptions that are grand and sublime, and, taken as a whole, the work is of deep interest. American travellers who can wake up such feelings as must be aroused in the reading of well digested accounts of such scenery and incidents, accompanied by so high a moral, are undoubtedly doing good service to the community, and should meet with a correspondent encouragement.

Appleton's Literary Miscellany, a New Series of Choice Books.
No. 5. *Price Fifty Cents.*

The Life of Frederick Schiller, comprehending an Examination of his Works, by Thomas Carlyle, author of "French Revolution," "Sartor Resartus," "Past and Present," &c., &c.

"Quique pii vates et Phœbus digna locuti."—Virgil.

New York: D. Appleton & Co., 200 Broadway. Philadelphia: G. S. Appleton, 148 Chesnut street. Boston: James Munroe & Co. 1846.

Among the German authors upon whose works the reading public have fixed the stamp of approbation, Schiller undoubtedly occupies an exalted station; and it is much to be regretted that more full materials have not been found to make us well acquainted with the life of one who possessed so great a power over human sensibilities. But although the materials were scanty from which Carlyle has made up the book before us, yet has he given to it a lively and touching interest, while his reviews of the several works of the poet are full of that power and force which so strongly mark his writings. To us, too, it is refreshing to have an opportunity of reading Carlyle, in pure English, of which he is so competent a master, as he has often shown, and nowhere, we think, with better taste than in the work before us. Take, for example, the following summary of Schiller's character, from page 287:

"Combined, and partly kindred with these intellectual faculties, was that vehemence of temperament which is necessary for their full development. Schiller's heart was at once fiery and tender: impetuous, soft, affectionate, his enthusiasm clothed the universe with grandeur, and sent his spirit forth to explore its secrets, and mingle warmly with its interests. Thus poetry in Schiller was not one, but many gifts. It was not the 'lean and flashy song' of an ear apt for harmony, combined with a maudlin sensibility, or a mere animal ferocity of passion, and an imagination, creative chiefly because unbridled; it was what true poetry is always—the quintessence of general mental riches—the purified result of strong thought and conception, and of refined as well as powerful emotion. In his writings, we behold him a moralist, a philosopher, a man of universal knowledge; in each of these capacities he is great, but also in more, for all that he achieves in these, is brightened and gilded with the touch of another quality—his maxims; his maxims, his feelings, his opinions, are transformed from the lifeless shape of didactic truths, into living shapes that address faculties far finer than the understanding."

The Greece of the Greeks, by G. A. Perdicaris, A. M., late Consul of the United States at Athens. In two volumes.

> "The Deity has changed to nothing these cities: but I am not surprised thereby, for I know that Destiny is ever striving to produce something new, and changes the weak as well as the strong, by the power of necessity.—Pausanias.

New York: Paine & Burgess, 60 John street. 1846.

There is something so sacred, so classic, may we not say so touching, in the very name of Greece—it so calls up every heroic sentiment, and every refined feeling, that it is difficult to embody one's thoughts even of such a book as the two handsome volumes before us, without so much of this feeling rushing in upon the mind, as to render the task not facile of attainment. It were indeed easy to say that the work is an interesting one, inasmuch as it gives us a good account of the present state of Greece, written by a very intelligent native of the soil, well known to us as having delivered interesting lectures upon Greece in this city not many years since—that it is well printed, and embellished with beautiful engravings—and in so saying, we should but do it justice, for every part of the book bears testimony to the author's knowledge of his subject, in the various views he has taken of the present physical, moral, and political condition of the kingdom—of King Otho, the beautiful young Queen, and the state of society at Athens. All this, as we have said, is not difficult to state, and we do state it with sincerity: but the perusal of this book has given rise to feelings which we cannot sufficiently control, to avoid giving them utterance; and we think we cannot better do so, than by the following quotation from the Giaour:

"So fair, so calm, so softly sealed,
The first, last look by death revealed;
Such is the aspect of this shore;
'Tis Greece, but living Greece no more!

"Clime of the unforgotten brave!
Whose land from plain to mountain-cave
Was freedom's home, or glory's grave!
Shrine of the mighty! can it be
That this is all remains of thee?"

The Book of Illustrious Mechanics of Europe and America, translated from the French of Edward Foucaud. Edited by John Frost, LL. D., Author of "The Book of the Navy," "The Book of the Army," "The Book of the Colonies," &c. &c. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 200 Broadway. Philadelphia: George S. Appleton, 148 Chesnut-street. Cincinnati: Derby, Bradley & Co., 113 Main street.

We should think the patrons of the National Magazine would be very much obliged to us for informing them of the translation and publication of this book, which, from carefully looking through, we find contains much useful information beyond the notices it gives of the illustrious men who have aided in the establishment of the arts, for it gives short histories of the most important arts. It is indeed the only book we have ever seen that gives so full an account of the rise and progress of the arts in France. We cannot give a better idea of it, than by an enumeration of some of its valuable contents. First—Introduction—the Working Men—Early State of the Mechanic Arts—the Gobelins—Glass—Porcelain—Steel—Tin, etc.—Ebony Work—Locks—Sculpture—Architecture, and various other arts.—Printing—Steam—Automata—Canals—the Lightning Rod—Balloons—Parmentier—Lamps—Chemistry—Works in Iron—Breguet—Working in Wood—Manufacturing Improvements—Jacquard—Optical Instruments—Pianos—the Telegraph—Galvanic Battery—Voltaic Pile—Magic Lanterns—Panorama—Parachute, etc. These are included in the first twenty chapters, of which, however, the book contains in all eighty-four, those not enumerated being of equal, if not of greater interest than those we have named. Chapter 35, giving an account of the celebrated chemist Chaptal, and the influence he exerted over the arts, and the protection given to French industry through his means, is well worth the cost of the whole book.

Works of the English Puritan Divines, by Wiley & Putnam.
This volume contains, "The Jerusalem Sinner Saved," "The Pharisee and the Publican," "The Trinity and a Christian," "The Law and a Christian, &c., by John Bunyan; to which is appended "An Exhortation to Peace and Unity," with the Life of Bunyan, by the Rev. James Hamilton, Scotch Church, Regent Square, London New York: WILEY & PUTNAM, 161 Broadway. 1846.

No writer of any age or nation has had more readers than John Bunyan. No book ever had a more extended circulation than the Pilgrim's Progress, and, what is more, no book, the Bible excepted, has ever been more read. There must, therefore, we should think, be a great desire to read the life of a man so universally known as an author; while there are, doubtless, many to whom the writings of the English Puritan Divines will be very acceptable; and this edition of them, we learn, may be had at an uncommonly low price, although it is well printed, and on good paper.

A Discourse on the Life and Character of George Calvert, the first Lord Baltimore, made by John P. Kennedy, before the Maryland Historical Society, December 9th, 1845, *being the Second Annual Address to that Association.* Baltimore: Printed for the Society by J. MURPHY, 178 Baltimore street. 1845.

We have read this address with great pleasure and interest. Coming from the distinguished writer of some of our most popular works of fiction, and a no less distinguished member of our national councils, the reader has a full guarantee that the subject is well treated, and in a pleasing style.

These historical societies, which, we are happy to see, are becoming more numerous, are increasing our stock of colonial knowledge, and making us better acquainted with the origin of the several States, in a manner that cannot fail to be eminently useful. In the case before us, Mr. Kennedy has given us a very satisfactory account of the first proprietor of Maryland, and of the spirit of toleration contained in the first charter of that colony, at a time when religious toleration was little practised. We wish every success to the Maryland Historical Society, and feel much indebted to Mr. Kennedy for his valuable discourse.

Report on the Standards of Weight and Measure for the State of Maryland, and on the construction of the Yard Measures. By J. H. Alexander, Esq., of Baltimore.

This is a handsome volume, from the press of John D. Toy, Baltimore, and the work will commend itself to the attention of business men, for its elaborate investigation of the subject on which it treats. We have seen nothing since the celebrated report of John Quincy Adams, on weights and measures, (made by him while Secretary of State,) to the United States Senate, in 1821, to compare with the essay of the astute author now before us. The historical portion of the work, in which not only the early legislation of the colony of Maryland, on the subject of weights and measures, is given, but an account of the standards of weights, measures, and values, among the Romans and Saxons, and the origin and progress of the same in England, the variations in the reigns of different sovereigns, with the modern improvements, both in Great Britain and the United States, will be found of deep interest. The establishment of a uniform system of weights and measures in the United States is of great importance, and the researches and suggestions of practical men like Mr. Alexander, we trust will lead to a favourable result.

Over the Ocean, or Glimpses of Travel in Many Lands, by a lady of New York.
"Peregrination charms our senses with such unspeakable and sweet varieties."—BURTON.
New York: PAINE & BURGESS, 62 John street. 1846.

This is a lady's account, as the title purports "Of Travel in Many Lands." Of course it has no pretensions, being, as is said in the preface, intended "to convey to those she loved some share of the pleasure felt by her in looking for the first time upon foreign lands: and is now given to the public to gratify many whose good will she values, who have requested that her observations should be put in some convenient form." For ourselves, we like to read ladies' travels, for they generally describe what they see with good taste and in a pleasant and lively manner; and she who wrote this book saw a vast deal of many countries, and has made up quite an agreeable story.

The Life of Paul Jones, by Alexander Slidell Mackenzie, U. S. N. New York: Harper & Brothers, 82 Cliff street. 1845.

The name of Paul Jones is as familiar to every one acquainted with our Revolutionary history as an "household word," and the fame of the naval battle between the "Bon Homme Richard" and the "Serapis," has resounded through every clime Perhaps no man ever lived more imbued with the spirit of chivalric enterprise than the naval hero whose life is given in the two neat volumes before us. They contain, moreover, many of his letters, and, with an impartiality which is commendable, represent the character of this very extraordinary man with all its weakness, and with all its strength! His besetting sin was vanity, which was, nevertheless, accompanied with a large share of benevolence, and an undaunted and restless spirit of adventure, which could not be satiated, owing to the limited means at the disposition of Congress in our Revolutionary struggle.

The intimate intercourse our hero had with Franklin, gives an additional interest to these volumes, which contain several letters from the illustrious sage, while our minister at the Court of St. Cloud. We have read the work with much pleasure and instruction, and should think no inquiring mind would be content to pass by such an opportunity of acquiring additional information of the life and adventures of John Paul Jones.

The Hand-book of Needlework, by Miss Lambert.

> "And though our country everywhere is filled
> With ladies and with gentlemen, skilled
> In the rare art, yet here we may descerne
> Some things to teach them, if they list to learn."—John Taylor.

With numerous Illustrations, engraved by J. J. Butler. New York: Wiley & Putnam, 161 Broadway. 1846.

This work should have a place, in every lady's library, not more as a good manual of needlework, than from the history it gives of the art, from the earliest period, and in all countries.

Conducting almost the only periodical of the country devoted to domestic industry in every sense of the word, we can, with a very safe conscience, give our strongest recommendation of Miss Lambert's labours, and though, albeit, in nowise skilled in the art she teaches, we can safely say, from competent testimony, that we have not gone too far in what we have said above, "that the work should find a place in every lady's library."

The Vicar of Wakefield, a Tale, by Oliver Goldsmith, M. B., illustrated with numerous Engravings, with an account of the Author's Life and Writings, by J. Aiken, M. D., Author of Select Works on the British Poets. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 200 Broadway. Philadelphia: George S. Appleton, 148 Chesnut street.

An old friend in a new dress. Well do we remember the first time we read the Vicar of Wakefield, and the intense pleasure it excited; but we cannot tell how many times we have been delighted by recurring to its pages since. Would that we had never read it—for then there would be in store for us a moral gratification such as we despair of ever again attaining.

We presume few who read at all, have debarred themselves of the delight of becoming acquainted with Dr. Primrose, his interesting family, and their various adventures, so inimitably described; but if there be any among those who shall see this notice, that yet have that gratification in store, we can honestly say, they are in an enviable position, and we advise them to lose no time in furnishing themselves with this very book: for besides that they will have more pleasure than they have ever experienced in reading a book of fiction, they will have an opportunity of becoming acquainted with the author, and reading an essay on his poetry by Dr. Aiken. We fully agree with Dr. Johnson, that Goldsmith "was a powerful, yet gentle master over the affections, at once sublime, lively, and equal to every subject," and that he "left no species of writing untouched, nor touched any, that he did not adorn."

Man in the Republic, a series of Poems, by Cornelius Matthews: a New Edition. New York: Paine & Burgess, 62 John street. 1846.

This is a neat miniature copy of verses, addressed by the author to "the child, the father, the teacher, the citizen, the farmer, the mechanic, the merchant, the soldier, the statesman," &c. &c., numbering in all nineteen.

THE

NATIONAL MAGAZINE

AND

Industrial Record.

VOL. II. NEW YORK, MARCH, 1846. No. X.

THE COMMERCE OF SPAIN.

WE think our readers must have found much instruction in the history we gave in our last number, of the wretchedness which was exhibited in Portugal, through the system of what is called "free trade," as recommended by Mr. Secretary Walker. We are now about to present to them, the melancholy commercial history of a country superiour in climate, and every natural endowment, to any other in Europe. A country once the most distinguished for its commercial enterprise—the discoverer of the new world—and for a long period, the repository of its immense treasures; and although the manner of its downfall has been somewhat, in form, different from that of Portugal, yet it will be seen to be traceable to precisely the same cause—namely, the neglect of the home industry; for we find on reference to the pages of history, that Spain was, in remote periods, celebrated for the fertility of its soil, and that it was equally signalized for the variety of its pursuits in agriculture, manufactures, and commerce. The Greeks and Romans, found Spain further advanced in all kinds of useful arts, than they could possibly have imagined. It was in the city of Zoela, in the district of Taragon, that the first linen stuffs were manufactured; and the cloths of Xativa, or San Felippo, the ancient Sætabis, were famous through Greece and Italy. At Carthagena, very fine stuffs were fabricated from the barks of trees, and the manufacture of woollen cloth had arrived at a high degree of perfection—the Spaniards having long possessed the art of dying cloth of a very beautiful purple colour, which they learned of the Phœnicians, so that at one time they supplied all Italy with this article.

The Celtiberians knew the method of tempering steel, and nothing could resist the force of their weapons. The manufactures of Spain, were, however, much injured by the invasion of the Northern nations, and were again revived by the Moors, who exhibited an example of genius, industry, and activity, worthy of all praise.

The Spaniards, and the Moors of Spain, divided between them the manufactures of that country; those of leather, linen, silk, etc., were almost wholly in the hands of the former, while those of arms, and articles of which wool was the raw material, were in possession of the latter.

The history of Spanish manufactures may be divided into three periods. The first commences with the consolidation of all parts of the monarchy, under Ferdinand and Isabella, in the year 1475, and extends to the death of Philip II., in the year 1598. The second comprises the reigns of Philip III., Philip IV., and Charles II.; that is to say, during the whole of the seventeenth century. The third includes the eighteenth century; but, strictly speaking, it did not commence till the year 1720.

The first was a memorable and brilliant period for Spain, for in those days her manufactures were on the increase and became very famous. The second period witnessed their decline and decay, and their fall was as rapid as their elevation. The third period furnishes an interesting index of the efforts which were used, for a long time, to re-invigorate the national manufactures. During the first period, Spain was in a very flourishing condition During the whole time that elapsed, from the commencement of the fifteenth to the end of the sixteenth century, Spain was perfectly independent of foreign nations, manufacturing the greatest part of its silk and wool, and exporting more manufactures than raw materials. But during the progress of the seventeenth century, the manufacturers of cotton, linen and hempen cloths, gloves, and metals, entirely vanished, and by the close of that century, scarcely a vestige remained. When Philip V. ascended the throne, the intestine wars during the first fourteen years of his reign, and the low state of the national finances, prevented the government from paying any attention to the state of the country in this respect, though some measures were adopted for the revival of manufactures when peace was restored. Ferdinand VI. did more for this purpose than any of his predecessors, and his successor, Charles III., followed his example. The manufacturers of Catalonia were the first to revive, after the war waged for the succession, and in a short period were established, and by competition quickly multiplied. By degrees, new branches of manufactures, were adopted in various places, and the different ramifications became numerous. The state of manufactures, in the fifteenth and sixteenth centuries, gave rise to a flourishing commerce, which extended all over Europe. Almeria, Valencia, and Barcelona, were no less important, in a mercantile view, than any of the Hanse Towns—pushing their commerce into Syria, Egypt, Barbary, and the Archipelago. The trade of the country was, at this time, for the most part, in the hands of the Jews; while the Spaniards were generally, either engaged in arms or in the luxurious enjoyments of peace. The Moors conducted their agricultural and manufacturing concerns, while their merchants and bankers were Israelites.

Ferdinand, by the conquest of Grenada, in 1492, had acquired all the manufactures of Spain—then, as we have said, in the hands of the Moors; but they had considerably injured the sale of their goods, by their expulsion of the Jews. The discovery of America, had, before many years, given fresh vigour to industry and commerce; both these pursuits increased prodigiously under Charles V., and Philip II. In the last years of the latter reign, the city of Seville alone contained sixty thousand looms for weaving silk, at least; so says the Abbe Raynal. The woollen cloth of Segovia was considered the finest in Europe, and that of Catalonia was, in the Levant, preferred to any other. The armada against

England, in 1588, consisted of 150 large men-of-war, and is sufficient proof that Spain had at that time a powerful navy, and consequently a great foreign commerce; and in the compass of a century, the Spaniards formed immense and very expensive undertakings—the wars of the low countries, and the league, alone, cost them near seven hundred millions of dollars. By these operations, an infinite amount of their treasures and precious metals were sent abroad.

If the Spaniards had then been obliged to buy the goods they sent to their Colonies, as was the case afterwards, Europe would then have enjoyed the treasures of Spain, as she subsequently did. In such a state of dependency for her supplies of manufactures, she could never have made expensive armaments by sea, paid so many foreign armies, fomented divisions in the neighbouring states, subverted every thing by intrigue, been the mover of all political events, and the first power on the earth.

If we believe Usteriz, an eminent Spanish author, the immense treasures, imported from 1493 to 1724, amounted to five thousand millions of dollars. " Yet," says he, " all this treasure necessarily goes out every year to other European nations, for the manufactures and produce of those nations, with which Spain and its Indies are supplied in immense quantities." Some have been of opinion that it would have been happier for Spain, if she had never colonized in America, unless she had at the same time cultivated manufactures of all kinds, as formerly, by which means she might not only have kept much of the American treasure within herself, as capital for the support of her industry, but those manufactures would, by a necessary increase of people, have contributed to make up the loss of the native Spaniards, transplanted in great numbers to America.

When once a nation begins to decline, it seldom stops. The loss of population, of manufactures, and of trade, operates upon the pursuit of agriculture; thus, while all Europe was improving in knowledge, and was animated with a spirit of industry, Spain was falling into a state of inaction and barbarism. In a short time, such a thing as a road or public highway, was unknown—travellers were stopped at rivers over which there were neither bridges nor boats; there was not a single canal or navigable river. The most superstitious people in the world, as to their fast days—suffered their fisheries to drop, and bought fish every year, to the amount of $2,500,000. Except a few old vessels, they had not a national ship in their harbours. Their coasts lay exposed to the depredations of the Barbary corsairs. To escape falling into such hands, they were obliged to freight in foreign vessels. Thus, in the middle of the seventeenth century, Philip IV. found, that, though America poured its treasures into Spain, all his gold turned into copper, and he was reduced to the alternative of raising the value of his copper coin almost equal to that of silver, of the same weight: and while Spain saw all other nations growing more enlightened from their progress in the arts, his people thought it beneath their dignity to follow such an example. The inquisition—that tremendous tribunal—established, as was alledged, to stop the progress of Judaism and Mahomedanism—had proved fatal to the arts, the sciences, and all useful knowledge, and the people remained sunk into the most profound ignorance. Instead of that activity which could alone convey life to the extensive parts of the Spanish dominions, which lay so much scattered abroad in the world, the Spaniards were so tardy in all their movements, that business was ruinously impeded.

It is remarkable that the melancholy situation of Spain, in the reign of Philip IV., with a declining agriculture, no manufactures, and little commerce, except what was carried on in foreign ships, is said to have put the Spanish Court upon consultation in the year 1647, whether it might not be advisable for the King and his Court to remove to, and settle entirely in, America. In the succeeding reign of Charles II., Spain grew still more feeble. In 1660, notwithstanding they had the only trade in the world for gold and silver, money was no where so scarce. In 1672, Spain lost to France, Burgundy and some of her provinces in the Netherlands; the former having been ever since alienated, and become a part of the French monarchy. In 1700, King Charles II. of Spain died. "The French King, (says Anderson,) had managed that weak Prince's will absolutely in favour of his grandson, the Duke of Anjou, and thereupon Louis seized upon the entire Spanish monarchy, without regarding the last partition treaty. Hereby the greatest part of Europe was alarmed, and most especially the Emperor, England, and Holland. By Louis's seizing upon Milan, and other imperial feofs in Italy, the Emperor and empire were nearly concerned. By his seizing on the Spanish Netherlands, the Dutch were deprived of a barrier against France; and by his possession of Spain itself, England and Holland's great commerce, in and to the Mediterranean, lay much at his mercy, as did, also, their West India commerce, by his despatching ships of war to take possession of the Spanish dominions in America. Yet both England and Holland, found themselves obliged so far to temporize, as at first to recognize his grandson for King of Spain, being as yet in no condition to oppose his title, or openly to favour, what was more to their interest, the claim of the House of Austria to the Spanish monarchy."

From Macgregor's commercial statistics, we extract the following summary from this period, which is thus brought down to the present time:

"The government of Spain can scarcely be considered, ever since the paralyzation of her liberties under Charles V., and the establishment of absolute power under Philip V., less despotic than Russia and Turkey. The Cortes were only assembled at very long intervals; not for free deliberative purposes, but for mere form. The Council of State, and the Council of Castile, being under the direction of, and the members appointed by, the King, formed no obstacle to the absolute will of the monarch. The gold of South America purchased luxurious ease at home; the first offices in the State were sold to the highest bidder; industry and enterprise languished; commerce was destroyed by barbarous restrictions; the population decreased from idleness, and from the superstition and pride of the grandees, and even hidalgoes, who preferred their junior sons becoming ecclesiastics, or even monks, and imprisoned their daughters in convents, rather than have either the one or the other engaged in industrious, rational, and national occupations. Spain lost her rank among nations, and was finally subdued by Napoleon. The old dynasty was afterwards, by the assistance of England, re-established, but the South American Colonies revolted, and in 1820, an abortive effort was attempted to restore the Cortes, with all the privileges of that once powerful assembly.

"With the aid of France, Ferdinand was enabled not only to put down the popular movement, but to re-establish a sway fully as absolute as was exercised by the most despotic of his predecessors.

"The constitutional party, from 1820 to 1823, were carried forward in their views of government, to an impracticable extreme. The elements of a durable constitution, such as they conceived, neither did, nor does, exist in any country—far less in Spain. The adoption of universal suffrage, only one representative house, from which the nobles, clergy, and the wealthy and influential bodies were to be excluded, and rendering the veto of the monarch temporary, formed certainly a most visionary and impracticable conception, in a country where the mass of the people were illiterate and superstitious, and accustomed to reverence and obey their clergy, and to respect and depend on the higher ranks.

"On the death of Ferdinand VII., the liberal party obtained the ascendency so far, under the Queen Regent, as to restore the Cortes, with power limited and not initiative, but not yet sufficiently defined.

"Spain occupies a surface nearly one-half greater than the British isles, with a soil capable of yielding nearly double the value of agricultural produce. Spain is eleven times as large as Holland; the latter, as we have seen, has no minerals, little land for other purposes than for grazing and for buildings, no timber, and a climate the character of which is humid, and for a part of the year severely cold. If Spain and Holland were left to themselves, in the event of a warlike contention, which of the nations would be most likely to overcome the other? At present, opinion would decide in favour of Holland. The example of these two nations, is an elucidation of the power or weakness of countries, in consequence of the wisdom and industry, or the folly and negligence of man, in opposition to natural advantages or obstructions."

In giving this short sketch of the commercial history of Spain, we have confined ourselves to its general features, to show that no country can advance in wealth and civilization, without an industrious population, and a due regard to its natural advantages, sustained by the paternal care of the government—and we think the history of no country more fully proves this than that of Spain. Possessing one of the finest climates in the world, fine land for agricultural purposes, and mineral treasures in abundance—with a monopoly, for centuries, of all the gold, silver, and precious stones of the Western world, pouring into her lap—we see her sunk in sloth, and its concomitant wretchedness.

While her people husbanded their own resources, and industriously converted their abundant raw material into the necessaries and comforts of life, these measures produced the effects invariably attendant upon them, and Spain was, as we have seen, flourishing and independent. But when the treasures of her American Colonies, in the shape of gold, silver, and precious stones, poured in upon her, how striking was the contrast. Her independent and happy population were seduced from their industrious pursuits, and idleness, sloth, and dissipation of every kind, gradually reduced them to misery and wretchedness.

It is true, that many other causes were in operation, to retard Spain in the march of prosperity, which has so distinguished the eighteenth and part of the nineteenth century. The unhappy intestine wars, by which she has been so much convulsed, and which have rendered the government so unstable, must undoubtedly have had great influence in disturbing her internal policy, and greatly retarded her in the improvements which have resulted from the advancement in science and the arts, so strongly characterizing these latter times.

We are happy, however, to notice that something of this impulse is in progress; that the extraction of her rich mineral treasures is increasing, and that railroads are commencing to be built; these are good signs, and there is thence some reason to hope, that as the arts and sciences again revive, and intercommunication becomes more easy, a country so highly favoured in soil and climate, and so richly endowed with every means of sustaining, in comfort, a large population, may eventually catch the spirit of the age, and once more resume a respectable rank among the nations of Europe.

We now proceed to give some statistics of the general commerce of Spain, and to show the items of her trade with the United States, for the year ending 30th of June, 1844, which, it will be perceived, is very inconsiderable.

Of her tariff of duties, we shall, as we have done with Portugal, give enough to show that her present policy is, like that of all other countries, protective. Yet, in the case of Spain and Portugal, both, it is not to be expected that they can enjoy, to the full extent, the benefits of this policy; from the fact of their being so far behind the rest of the world in the modern improvement of the arts.

We have said little or nothing of the Colonies of Spain; because, so far as regards our intercourse with these Colonies, our commercial connexion is entirely separate and distinct—having nothing whatever to do in our intercourse with the mother country, neither commercially nor financially.

In the course of these commercial sketches, which it is our intention to continue, we shall take occasion to introduce remarks upon our trade with the Colonies of the different European powers, in which the Colonies of Spain, in the East and West Indies, will not be overlooked.

Imports from Spain into the United States, from June 30, 1843, *to June* 30, 1844:

SPECIE.

Gold,	$25,382
Silver,	10,250
	$35,632

All other articles free of duty,	$3,229
Articles of Wearing Apparel,	206
Matting and Mats,	5,804
Earthen and Stoneware,	80
Corks,	16,930
Brussells Carpeting,	80
Sherry Wine,	20,751
Port Wine,	30
Teneriffe Wine,	6,158
Wine of Spain,	36,415
Wines of Germany,	8,420
Other Mediterranean Wines,	3,138
Olive Oil,	1,264
Brandy from Grain,	61
Almonds,	20,045
Figs,	1,697
Raisins,	371,803
Bottles,	55
Books printed 40 years before Importation,	256
In other languages,	372

Salt,	$33,645
Dried or Smoked Fish,	20
	$566,091
Not enumerated articles	67,273
Total imports from Spain to the United States....	$633,364

Exports to Spain, from the United States, for the year ending June 30th, 1844:

DOMESTIC EXPORTS AS FOLLOWS:

Staving and Heading,	$97,692
Manufactures of Wood,	1,593
Naval Stores,	280
Beef in Barrels,	352
Pork and Lard,	195
Cotton,	358,978
Tobacco,	123,698
Coaches and other Carriages,	1,500
Household Furniture,	108
Spirits of Turpentine,	459
	$584,765
Foreign Exports,	47,780
Total Exports to Spain from the United States,.	$632,545

SPANISH TARIFF, PROMULGATED ON THE FIRST OF NOVEMBER, 1841, AND NOW IN FORCE.

The importation into Spain, of the following articles is prohibited—viz.

Cotton manufactures of all kinds; barilla; brushes for horses; brandy; spirits of wine (alcohol;) ornamental furniture and ornaments, whether of metal or wood, or set with precious stones, or mock jewels, and all objects necessary in the celebration of the Roman Catholic worship.

Firearms of all kinds; jet; quicksilver; sulphur; sword-canes and air-guns; buttons, and dies for Spanish coins; ships and vessels under 400 tons; corn and grain; horses, mares, and mules.

Cacao from foreign European countries, by land or sea.

Stockings of all kinds; bell metal; carcasses and shells; small carts for children, and wheelbarrows; charts published for the use of the Spanish admiralty, &c., reprinted in foreign countries; cinnabar; mattresses; cork; squares and rules of all sorts, stamped or not; hides and skins, salted or dried; epaulets, and gold and silver tassels for military uniforms; chocolate; waste silk; figures and dolls dressed, or statues, or busts of marble, stone, china, or wood; buckram; writing-desks, of ordinary metal, or plated, or gilt; bast, or feather-grass (*esparto*) wrought; looking-glasses, the plate being upwards of one-fourth of their height; tin and pewter wares in whatever form, plain or japanned, and tin or iron plates of all kinds; bands, rollers, and fillets; artificial fruits and flowers; flasks; caps of all kinds; madder, ground or unground; gloves and mittens of all kinds; iron, wrought; blades for swords, daggers, knives, &c.; soap, hard or soft; cages for birds; sealing-wax; wool; books; woods, manufactured and ornamented; also, instruments of wood, furniture, and any description of wooden manufactures; smallwares (*manufacturas de pasamaneria,*) of all kinds, such as bands, tapes, net-work, &c.; saddlery and harness of all kinds; marble, or alabaster, wrought and polished, in pieces or blocks; coarse fringe stuffs (*nearraga;*) stockings and socks of all kinds; playing-cards, books, and works in the Spanish language; gold and silver, wrought in any shape not permitted by law; paintings and designs for fans; bread of all kinds of flour; paper of other descriptions than those named in the tariff; pastes, such as macaroni, semolina, &c.; combs; furs; parchment; fish of all kinds, whether fresh, salted, or dried, except codfish and stockfish (*bacalao;*) stone (*piedra infernal,*) stones—viz: fire stone, grind and whet stones, rough stone, or stone hewn for building. Articles of ornament for ordinary use, containing effigies, or pictures of the saints; stereotype plates (called *cliches*;) lead in bars, or with or without mixture of tin; feathers for head-dresses, and plumes for all other purposes; gunpowder; powder for cataplasms; powder, or fine sand for cards; fishing nets; wearing apparel of all descriptions, excepting that worn, or brought by travellers as personal luggage; rosaries; salt, common, and saltpetre; hats of all kinds; tobacco; cards or plates, having coats of arms engraven thereon; wheat, barley, rye, pulse, peas, beans, maize, and all kinds of grain and flour; candles, wax, and tallow; national decorations and badges, crosses, and orders; window glass, common, and hollow glass, covered or not covered with wicker work; gypsum, in stone or powder, and plaster of Paris; sieves, and screens of all kinds.

Among the above list of general prohibitions, there are several, but not important exceptions, in the tariff of articles imported from foreign countries, which extends in consequence of its numerous repetitions to 1,326 articles, exculsive of articles imported from America and Asia.

In order to simplify the numerous repetitions and lengthy arrangement of this tedious tariff, we have arranged the articles so as to present them in conformity to the class to which they belong.

TARIFF ON SUNDRY ARTICLES.

WOVEN MANUFACTURES.

Linen, per quintal, 15 *to* 25 *per cent., with one-third more consumption duty, and if imported in foreign vessels one-third additional duty.*

Woolen manufactures are divided into eight classes:

Class 1st, pays from 20 to 30 per cent., from one-third to one-half additional consumption duty, and the same additional if imported in foreign vessels.

Class 2nd, 25 per cent., one-third additional consumption, and one-third more if in foreign vessels.

Class 4th, from 25 to 30 per cent., one-fourth more consumption duty, from one-third to one-half additional if in foreign vessels.

Class 5th, 25 per cent., one-third more consumption duty, one-third additional in foreign vessels.

Class 6th, 20 per cent., one-third more consumption duty, one-third additional in foreign vessels.

Class 7th, 20 per cent., one-third more consumption duty, one-third additional in foreign vessels.

Class 8th, 20 to 25 per cent., one-third more consumption duty, one-third additional in foreign vessels.

SILKS are divided into six classes, and pay from 15 to 25 per cent., with one-third more consumption duty, one-third additional in foreign vessels.

We deem it unnecessary to occupy space with a further account of the Spanish tariff, our trade being so limited, and few, if any, articles except staves, cotton, and tobacco, being exported from the United States to that country. The duties are all levied, and calculated on a valuation in Spain, which greatly exceeds the cost; so that they are, in effect, much higher than the rates here indicated.

Tobacco, it is well known, is a government monopoly. Staves pay a duty of 1½ per cent., *ad valorem*, in Spanish, and one-fourth additional in American vessels, and two-thirds is again added when the article is entered for consumption.

The duty on cotton is not named in the Spanish tariff, and all articles not named are said to pay 15 per cent., *ad valorem*.

NAVIGATION AND TRADE OF SPAIN.

The navigation and commerce of Spain are described as of great extent and value, as far back as the earliest known periods of history. The Greek and Phœnician navigators sailed to and finally colonized Spain, and traded between the East and this extensive peninsula: then considered the extreme Western limit of the world. Cadiz is said to have been founded by the Tyrians about 1,000 years before the Christian era. Many other towns, as Valentia, Malaga, Cordova, &c., were founded by the Greek and Phœnician colonists. The Carthaginians long afterwards established themselves as traders and colonists in Spain, the seaports of which, and of the other coasts of the Mediterranean, were, in consequence of this trade, in active correspondence with each other. The Vandals and Visigoths afterwards occupied Spain, and subdued, but did not extirpate, or drive out, the former inhabitants, nor yet extinguish the commerce of the seaports; for it appears that the Vandals (A.D. 428) embarked for Africa, and found no difficulty in collecting at Gibraltar a fleet of ships, from the other seaports of Spain, sufficient to transport 80,000 men, with their baggage, arms, and provisions. It would, also, appear that the trade and navigation of the several kingdoms of Spain flourished during the time of the Moors.

The reigns of Ferdinand and Isabella, of Charles V., and Philip II., are described as the great era of Spanish navigation and trade; but, although Spain has gloried in employing both the discoverer of America and the conqueror of Mexico, we are unable to discover or conclude that Spain was at any period a great commercial country. Building royal fleets by means of excessive taxation—granting a monopoly of the carrying trade, to and from America and the Philippines—excluding generally the manufactures of foreign countries—and bringing to Spain the gold and silver robbed from the natives of Cuba, Porto Rico, Mexico, and Peru, and the precious metals extracted afterwards by slave labour from the mines of America,* cannot assuredly be considered extensive, or sound, commerce, which consists legitimately of a fair interchange of the commodities of one country or one place for those of another kind, use, or value. In this sense, the navigation and commerce of the Portuguese was far more important than that of Spain.

The more general accounts transmitted to us, of Spanish trade and riches, are now well known to have been most outrageously exaggerated. Spain, if we except the precious stones and the gold and silver treasures of her churches,† retained but a comparatively small portion of wealth imported from both the Indies.

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* From the silver mines of Potosi alone, according to the report of the Minister Laberto de Sierra, in 1802, (exclusively of the vast sums fraudulently secreted,) there was exported to Spain, in 246 years, the enormous value, reduced to British sterling money, of nearly £168,000,000; and during the following years the official account of gold and silver imported (exclusively of smuggling) from the Spanish Colonies, appears enormous—viz: in 1784, £10,034,000; in 1785, £9,478,400; in 1792, £3,862,000. Humboldt states the average annual produce of the Spanish American mines as follows: 1500 to 1545—£600,000; 1545 to 1600—£2,200,000; 1600 to 1700—£3,200,000; 1700 to 1750—£4,400,000; 1750 to 1803—£7,060,000 sterling.

† None in the world exceeded in their internal riches the churches of Spain. The church of the Escurial, in 1716, contained 3,537 massive *reliquaires* in silver, in vermeil, or gold, and set with precious stones. These *reliquaires* contained 7 whole saints, 107 saints' heads, 177 saints' arms and legs, 346 saints' veins, 1400 saints'

GENERAL COMMERCE OF SPAIN.

The following statement of the general commerce of Spain was published recently by a commission upon the Spanish tariff, in a Report to the Spanish Minister of Finance:

The total foreign Commerce of Spain, as well by land as by sea, was, in 1843—

Total Imports		$22,865,000	
Total Exports		16,456,000	
			$39,321,000
Commerce with Europe, the Levant, and Africa,	Imports,	$12,386,000	
	Exports,	10,126,000	
Commerce with Spanish America & United States,	Imports,	9,980,000	
	Exports,	6,272,000	
Commerce with Asia,	Imports,	498,000	
	Exportation,	57,400	
Of this amount the commerce by sea amounted to,		37,595,000	
By land,		1,726,000	
			$39,321,000

The French Consular statement, from whence the above figures are taken, estimates the contraband, or smuggling trade of Spain, at about one-half the regular trade, and thence concludes that the whole imports and exports when added together, including the regular and smuggling commerce, would amount to $58,981,500. The same authority states of the regular trade, about three-fourths is in Spanish vessels, and one-fourth in foreign.

From the same statement, although we have no account of the Spanish and foreign tonnage or number of vessels, we have the following estimate of the amounts in Spanish and foreign ships:

Importations under the Spanish flag,	$9,124,400
do. do. Foreign flags,	3,011,200
	$12,135,600
Exportation under the Spanish flag,	$5,015,200
do. do. Foreign flags,	4,447,200
	$9,462,400

According to the Spanish official reports, the commerce of Spain with her colonial possessions, taking the annual average of the five years previous to 1790, amounted in British sterling money to the following value—viz:

Importations from the Colonies,	Precious metals,	£4,880,000
	Various products,	2,160,000
	Total Imports,	£7,040,000
Exported to the Spanish Colonies,	Spanish products,	£2,640,000
	Foreign products,	3,000,000
	Total Exports,	£5,640,000
Importation into Spain from foreign countries,	By Licet Trade,	£1,760,000
	By Contraband,	3,440,000
		£5,200,000

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thumbs, fingers, and toes, 1,500 other holy relics of saints; and the statue of St. Lawrence, weighing 450 lbs. of silver, and 18 lbs. of gold.

During the year 1792, the imports from foreign countries into Spain, by contraband or otherwise, are stated to have amounted to 714,896,000 reals vellon, or £7,446,833 sterling, and the exports to foreign countries only to the value of 396,195,000 reals vellon, or £4,125,989 sterling. The Spanish authorities, in their official reports, term the foregoing the flourishing years of their commerce.

The Junta de Medios, which sat at Cadiz in the years 1811, 1812, and 1813, whose reports we have already referred to, states, that a war with England has always been ruinous to Spanish trade, and yet that the exports of Spain, in 1795, amounted in value to 480,000,000 reals vellon—viz :

In diamonds and precious stones,	7,000,000
" silks,	20,000,000
" wools,	150,0000,00
" cotton,	7,000,000
" leather and skins,	30,000,000
" brandy, barilla, soap, raisins, and acids,	156,000,000
" salt, drugs, and colonial produce,	110,000,000
Total,	480,000,000
Total sterling,	£5,000,000

That the total Imports amounted that year, including contraband—

In jewels, glasswares, paper, furniture, perfumery, and cloths,	480,000,000
In wine, copper, grain, tanned skins, and provisions,	240,000,000
Hemp, roots, pitch, flax, wood, ironworks, tin, and drugs,	160,000,000
Reals vellon,	880,000,000
Total sterling,	£9,166,666

It must appear evident, from the foregoing brief statement, how greatly the trade and the navigation of Spain was overrated. Spanish shipping was, during the foregoing years, engaged chiefly in the Mediterranean and Spanish coasting trade, and in the trade with the Spanish colonies. (See Trade of, hereafter.) Cadiz was the rendezvous of the annual galleons which brought home the precious metals of Guanaxaco, Potosi, &c. The same port is said to have admitted annually 600 foreign vessels—Barcelona 350, and Malaga 300 ; but these were of small tonnage, and arrived under great restrictions, and the loss of the colonial trade has greatly diminished the trade of those ports.

As to the actual trade of Spain, since 1814, our returns do not enable us to state, even by estimate, the general trade of Spain. The Spanish government returns, give the general trade of Spain as follows, in 1827 and 1828—viz :

	Value of Imports.		Value of Exports.	
1827—Foreign trade,	£2,602,080	£3,809,200	£2,420,040	£2,876,481
Colonial trade,	1,207,120		456,441	
1829—Foreign trade,	£3,803,640	£4,579,280	£2,064,120	£2,621,880
Colonial trade,	775,640		557,760	

The imports during those years consisted of colonial produce—tobacco, from Gibraltar and United States—hardwares—linens, more in value than one-tenth of the whole—woollens and silks—salt fish, (value about £300,000, in 1829,)—building timber and other raw materials. The exports consisted of flour, &c., to Cuba, Porto Rico, Madeira, and the Canaries—and brandy, wines, dry fruit, almonds, olive oil, wool, silk, quicksilver, lead, iron, steel, &c.

The trade between France and Spain, according to the French official accounts, amounts, during the following years, to

Years.	Imports from Spain.	Exports to Spain.
1787	60,339,000fr.	40,161,200fr.
1788	27,256,000	49,890,200
1789	32,238,000	41,084,000
1825	16,273,000	53,272,000
1826	17,392,800	46,206,000
1827	22,949,000	40,824,000
1828	19,973,000fr.	41,637,000fr.
1829	21,246,000	41,707,000
1830	22,916,000	34,245,000
1831	20,224,000	36,025,000
1832	16,675,400	28,032,000
1837	27,000,000	45,700,000

During the years 1809 to 1814, the trade in British manufactures to Spain and for Spain, by way of Gibraltar, appears to have greatly increased. The declared value of British manufactures exported to Spain and Gibraltar during the following years were—viz:

YEARS.	To Spain.	To Gibraltar.	TOTAL.
1814	£3,560,000	£2,056,000	£5,616,000
1825	323,800	908,000	1,231,800
1827	225,414	1,045,266	1,270,680
1828	301,153	1,038,925	1,340,078
1829*	861,675	504,163	1,365,838
1830	607,068	292,760	899,828
1831	597,848	367,285	965,133
1832	442,926	461,470	904,396
1833	442,837	385,460	828,297
1834	325,907	460,719	786,626
1835	405,065	602,580	1,007,645
1836	437,076	756,411	1,193,487
1837	286,636	906,155	1,192,791
1838	243,839	894,096	1,137,935
1839	262,231	1,170,702	1,432,933
1840	404,252	1,111,176	1,515,428
1841	413,849	1,053,367	1,467,216
1842	322,614	937,719	1,260,333

Tobacco.—Of this article about 6,000,000 lbs. is smuggled annually from Gibraltar into Spain, and about 4,000,000 lbs. is exported from the same depot to Oran, Algiers, Malta, and other places. Spain, in the face of this contraband, still maintains her Royal Tobacco Monopoly. Exclusive of the tobacco smuggled into Spain from Gibraltar, it is smuggled in extensively along the whole north and west coasts of Spain. The recent extension of the Spanish Customs to the sea-coasts and ports of Biscay will not diminish, but, it is asserted, will greatly increase the contraband trade.

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* In the year 1829, Cadiz was declared a free port, and the exports of British goods to be smuggled into Spain from Gibraltar immediately decreased, while the direct exports to Cadiz immediately increased, and would have continued to increase, were it not for the great contraband trade from France, which increased after the revolution of July, and to which the augmented industry of France, during peace had, also, given an impulse, by the multiplication of French goods, especially cottons and woollens suitable for the Spanish markets.

OUR LAKE COMMERCE.

As every approximate statement of the commerce of the vast inland seas of this continent, is of great moment, more particularly at this time, we place on record the following statistics, which we find in a recent number of the National Intelligencer. To this excellent journal, we have, on a former occasion, been indebted for most valuable tables of our maritime commerce with the different cis-atlantic ports. Those tables were arranged from public documents, and were therefore official. The present statistics of our lake commerce, though not of the same character precisely, are, nevertheless, taken from sources that are considered reliable, and are fully worthy of a more permanent record than a daily paper, even though that paper should be one so universally acknowledged to be entitled to full confidence as is the National Intelligencer. It is, indeed, because we so well know the diligence used to obtain information, and the care to see that it is correctly stated, that we are prompted to avail ourselves of interesting facts and statements, coming from a source so accurate and respectable.

Statements of this nature, are, indeed, the only ones we can have of our great internal trade, for the gratifying reason, that such trade passes through no public offices where its amount and value can be recorded.

So far as relates to the tonnage employed, perfect accuracy is attainable, and in that respect there is every reason to give implicit credit and confidence to its amount as herein stated, immense as it may appear.

We feel the more pleasure in recording this extended view of Our Lake Commerce, because it is intimately connected with the article which precedes it in our last number, on the trade and prospects of the Great West.

We hope those who have opportunities of collecting statistics, bearing upon the great internal trade of the Union, will lose no opportunity to do so, and see that they are given to the public, for the more we can reach the facts in the case, the more will its immense importance appear.

The external commerce of the country, valuable as we admit it to be, will sink into comparative insignificance, if we can only show forth the manner in which the one thousand millions produced by the home industry is distributed throughout the Union, dispensing the blessings of life into every city, town, and hamlet, within our widely extended borders.

It is, we think, high time that the grain-growing and manufacturing States should adopt some measures to exhibit, annually, their share in the sustainment and prosperity of the great mass of our citizens. It is high time the information should be spread abroad that something else is necessary for our country, besides cotton, rice, and tobacco.

The ten thousand tongues of commerce are constantly dinning in the ears of the people that these are our great staples, and because public records are kept of each pound that is exported, almost every newspaper that meets the eye, is loaded with their statistics. We by no means object to the dissemination of such information—it is all right and proper—but what we do object to, is, that all interests should apparently be cast into the shade, because they do not enter into our foreign commerce.

The trifling sum of ten or fifteen millions of exports from the grain-growing and manufacturing States, would really appear to be the ratio in which *they* are estimated, compared with the fifty millions exported from the planting States, as though there was nothing really valuable in the country, unless it will enable us to pay for the products of foreign labour to the destruction of our own.

We ask any fair and candid man to examine the late report of Mr. Secretary Walker, and we think he will agree with us in the opinion, that the Hon. Secretary reasons as though the whole energies of this people should be devoted to the finding abroad, a market for our planting productions.

Consuming, as we do, sixty or seventy millions of dollars in value, of foreign manufactures, of which the planting States take but a very small proportional amount, the report tells us, almost in so many words, that the price of cotton is not high enough, and therefore, to increase its value in the foreign market, we must not think of any protection to other interests, but must lower the duties, break down our manufactures, and destroy our own market for our agricultural productions, that the planter may obtain a higher price for his productions abroad.

But this is not the only reason maintained by the Secretary. He gives us one other, as he thinks, very important one, namely: that protection by high duties does not benefit labour, but capital. The 791,749 of our people, that Professor Tucker tells us were employed in manufactures, and the 2,113,676 in the Middle and Eastern States engaged in agriculture, making in all 2,928,425, nearly all freemen, what is their interest in the eyes of the Secretary, compared to the interests of the 1,646,275 persons who are engaged in the growth of cotton, rice, and tobacco, 1,105,005 of whom are slaves, male and female, over ten years of age—all of whom are capital, and valued at the moderate price of $300 per head, amount to $331,501,500 ! !

We do most seriously invite the solemn attention of the grain-growing and manufacturing States to these statistics, for the vital interests of the whole Union depend upon them.

The editor of this work is one of the last men in the nation to draw sectional distinctions, but the Secretary of the Treasury has invited this discussion, and we fear not to meet him, either with arguments or facts.

The real question is, are our cities, towns, and villages, to be converted into marts for the sustainment of foreign capital, skill, and industry? Or are they to be retained for the capital, skill, and industry of American citizens? There is no escape from this view of the subject.

It is a notorious fact, that of the foreign manufactures imported, by far the largest amount is for foreign account. We write advisedly, and court inquiry upon this important feature in our foreign trade. Upon the system of the lowest duty for mere revenue, as recommended by the Secretary in his report, the cities, towns, and villages of the United States, indeed—the whole of the American market, so far as manufactures are concerned—would be English Colonial marts, and of as much value to England, as London, Liverpool, and all other English cities, towns, and villages.

With these few observations, called forth by the all-engrossing nature of the subjects to which we have adverted, we proceed and give the account of Our Lake Commerce.

The Northwestern States have two outlets for their trade to the ocean; one by the Mississippi to the Gulf of Mexico, the other by the Lakes and the navigable communications through the State of New-York to the Atlantic. Whether it be attributable to similarity of origin, of institutions and habits, or to ties of consanguinity, or superiour salubrity of climate, the people of the Northwestern States evidently prefer the market on the Atlantic, and they have made prodigious efforts to reach it. Three great canals, of an aggregate length of about one thousand miles, connect the Ohio with Lake Erie; another deep and capacious channel, "excavated for nearly thirty miles through solid rock, unites Lake "Michigan with the navigable waters of the Illinois; they are, also, con-"structing (in 1838) lines of railroads not less than fifteen hundred miles in "extent, in order to reach the lakes with more ease and speed. The "cost of the works undertaken, will exceed *forty-eight millions of dollars.* "These public works are arranged on a harmonious plan, bringing the "industry of the whole people into prompt and profitable action, the "whole system comprising an aggregate length of more than twenty-five "hundred miles, with Lake Erie as its common centre."

It was estimated that, in 1838, the annual value of agricultural products, which then descended the Mississippi and its tributaries, was seventy millions of dollars. What is its present amount, and the statistics of the trade of the Northwestern States through this outlet, will be the subject of future consideration. There is very good authority for the assertion, that, when the population of the States in question shall reach six millions, the exports and imports which will be conveyed by the lakes will be at least two hundred millions of dollars in value. Taking the ratio at which the population has hitherto increased in these States, as a guide, their aggregate population at this time may be calculated at four and a half millions, and the amount of lake commerce at one hundred and fifty millions of dollars. The calculation does not vary much from the result as exhibited by the following statements, which give somewhat in detail, the particulars of this truly important branch of our commerce. We can give at present, it is true, "but a dim shadowing forth" of its value; but, imperfect as it is, it deserves the serious attention of our readers.

STATISTICS OF LAKE COMMERCE, AS DEDUCED FROM OFFICIAL AND OTHER RETURNS OF THE COMMERCE OF THE FOLLOWING PLACES, WHERE THE TRADE OF THE LAKES IS PRINCIPALLY CONCENTRATED

Chicago, Lake Michigan, Ill.—The exports from this place, in 1840, amounted to $228,635, the imports to $562,106. In 1844, the exports were $1,008,207, the imports $1,433,886. The tonnage of the steamboats that frequented Chicago, in 1843, amounted to 117,000 tons. There were exported from Chicago, in 1844, wheat 891,894 bushels, and flour 26,600 barrels, equal, together, to 918,494 bushels of wheat. The population, in 1840, was 4,470, in 1845, nearly 13,000.

Michigan City, Indiana.—In 1833, the exports from this place were estimated at $15,000, in 1841, they were $262,687; the imports during the same period, had increased from $100,000 to $398,762.

Detroit and Michilimackinac, Mich.—The tonnage of vessels belonging to the former, was, in 1844, 14,901 tons; that of the latter, 498 tons.

Sandusky, Ohio.—The tonnage in 1844, was 2,407 tons; the exports amounted to $813,830; the value of the wheat exported in, 1843, was $380,023, that of the flour $155,177.

MILAN AND HURON, OHIO.—The tonnage, in 1844, was 2,371 tons, the exports amounted to $825,098, the imports to $634,711. The wheat exported, in 1844, was 645,835 bushels, the flour 10,591 barrels.

CLEVELAND, OHIO.—The tonnage in 1844, was 14,196 tons; the amount of exports, in 1843, was $5,502,108, that of imports $5,991,651. The wheat and flour received at Cleveland by the Ohio canal, in 1844, equalled 3,447,046 bushels. The Lake commerce of Cleveland, in 1843, was over $11,000,000 in amount. The value of wheat and flour shipped from Cleveland to Canada, in 1842, was $961,954. The arrivals of vessels, in 1844, (including steamboats,) was 2,761, the departures 2,767, of which 224 were from, and 226 to Canada. The population, in 1845, was 9,573, being an increase of fifty-eight per cent. since 1840.

OSWEGO, LAKE ONTARIO, N. Y.—Tonnage, in 1844, 9,387 tons. The goods and produce coming from other States and shipped at Oswego to the eastward, in 1844, amounted to 37,559 tons. The total amount of shipments from Oswego, in that year, was 67,477 tons. The wheat and flour shipped, amounted to 42,293 tons. The population was 6,818, being an increase of 48 per cent. on that of 1840.

BUFFALO, N. Y.—Tonnage, in 1844, was 20,822 tons. In 1844, there were 224,543 tons of merchandise which came from other States by Lake navigation, and was re-shipped from Buffalo and Black Rock by the canals. Of this amount, 168,983 tons were agricultural produce. The total amount of wheat and flour which arrived at tide-water on the Hudson, in 1844, from Buffalo and Black Rock, was 160,179 tons. From the opening of navigation to the 22d of July, 1844, the value of the produce arriving at Buffalo and Black Rock from other States, and re-shipped to the eastward, was $6,124,794. The number of arrivals at Buffalo, in the year which ended June 1, 1844, was 740, that of departures 778. The population of Buffalo, in 1845, was 28,346, being an increase of over fifty-five per cent. upon that of 1840.

To the above few, but striking items of the commercial statistics of the respective places, may be added the following general observations:

The wheat crop of Ohio, in 1844, was estimated at 15,969,000 bushels, being only a little more than three-fifths of that of 1842; and yet, in 1844, Ohio exported 8,000,000 bushels of wheat, one-half of which may fairly be assumed as having been shipped from ports on the Lakes. This year, the wheat crop is represented from all quarters as being greater, by 20,000,000 of bushels, than that of 1842, (the largest ever raised up to that year,) which was 103,000,000 bushels. The wheat crop of Michigan, is, comparatively, larger than that of any other State in the Union. With a population of 400,000, she raised this year at least 700,000 bushels. It is estimated that Illinois has this year a surplus of 6,000,000 bushels. The immense amount of Lake Commerce, and the importance of that channel of communication between the Western grain-growing States and the Eastern markets, are shown by the fact that the receipts of wheat and flour at Troy and Albany, during the first week of the present month, was 146,497 barrels of the latter; and 126,180 bushels of the former; together, equal to 858,665 bushels of wheat. If every reasonable deduction be made from this amount for the wheat and flour shipped from different points on the canal, within the State of New-York, and produced in that State, the amount left being the produce of the Western States, and reaching tide-water through the navigation of the lakes, will be surprisingly great.

The export of wheat, in 1843, from Cleveland, Detroit, Sandusky, and Chicago; was 1,894,942 bushels, that of flour 812,903 barrels; together, equal to 5,959,457 bushels of wheat, and worth $4,500,000.

In 1836, the import trade of the Lakes was,	$2,324248	
The export trade,	14,137,026	
		$16,461,274
In 1841, the export trade was,	$32,432,581	
" the import trade,	33,483,441	
		$65,916,022

The aggregate trade of 1843, was estimated at $100,000,000, and the increase of the last two years is calculated to be at least ten per cent. per annum.

It may be mentioned here, as a circumstance closely connected with the Lake Commerce, that a vessel of 350 tons burden can pass through the Welland canal, and take in a load of flour at the wharf at Chicago, which need not be handled again until it arrives at Liverpool.

In 1819, there was only one steamboat on the Lakes.

In 1827, the first steamboat navigated Lake Michigan.

In 1840, there were 48 steamboats on the Lakes, earning during the year $725,523, of which more than $200,000 were raised west of Detroit.

In 1841, there were 250 sailing vessels on the Lakes, varying from 50 to 350 tons, their cost $1,250,000, their earnings $750,000; the steamboat earnings were $767,132 27; making the total pofits of navigation $1,517,132 27.

The Upper Lake boats contributed $301,803 39 of the total amount of steamboat earnings, in 1841.

The entire number of vessels of every description, navigating the Lakes above Niagara, was, in 1843, estimated at 400.

The total amount of merchandise, the produce of Western States or Canada, coming in at Buffalo, Black Rock, and Oswego, and arriving at tide-water by the Erie canal, was, in 1844, 308,025 tons.

ADDITIONAL MEMORANDA.

After preparing the above view of our Lake commerce, we submitted it to the inspection of a gentleman from the West, possessing thorough practical information on the whole subject, who has furnished us with the following notes upon it:

" I have examined the statistics of the manuscript you were pleased to hand me. I should think the table quite correct, though a number of places on Lake Michigan, doing a large business, are not mentioned.

" The trade of Detroit is very large, and it is the main outlet of Michigan State.

" Toledo, in Ohio, west of Sandusky fifty miles, has an immense trade, and is at the outlet of the Miami canal from Cincinnati to the Lakes, (a city of now 100,000 people,) and the Wabash and Erie canal, also, terminates at Toledo, having a length of two hundred and forty miles into Indiana, the length of both canals being about five hundred miles.

" There is now surveying, and will be built through Ohio, two railroads: one from Cincinnati to Columbus, thence to Cleveland—distacne about two hundred and sixty miles: the other from Cleveland to Wellsville, on the Ohio—distance ninety-six miles.

"The New York and Erie Railroad, from New York city to Dunkirk, situated forty-miles up the Lake from Buffalo, is in progress. All the stock is subscribed.

"The trade of Lake Superiour will become enormous from its mineral resources, which are not touched upon in your statement.

"The exportation of wheat from Ohio, instead of eight millions in 1844, as estimated from data before you, was at least ten millions; and two-thirds of it went out by the Lakes.

"The census of Cleveland, in Ohio, as taken by the city authority in the spring of 1845, was as stated, but to it should be added at least 1,000 just without the city limits; and the town, on the opposite side, is really part of Cleveland, only divided by the river, and has 2,700 in it; which would make a total population of 13,273."

Since the preceding article was prepared for the press, we learn from the Cleveland Herald, that arrivals of vessels at the port of Cleveland, coastwise, during the season of 1845, were as follows:

Steamers,	927
Propellers,	105
Vessels,	950
Arrived from foreign ports,	124
Cleared to do.	135
Amount of tonnage owned at this port,	11,530
Number of vessels, including steamers and propellers, owned at this port,	84
Number of seamen employed,	638

LETTER OF THE HON. ABBOTT LAWRENCE,

TO THE HON. WM. C. RIVES, ON THE SUBJECT OF MR. SECRETARY WALKER'S REPORT.

As in our last number, we published a review of the Report of Secretary Walker, from the able pen of the Hon. Nathan Appleton, so we now have the pleasure to present a letter, on the same subject, to the Hon. Wm. C. Rives, from the Hon. Abbott Lawrence, a name too well and favourably known to his fellow-citizens, to need eulogy from us. Mr. Lawrence has been intimately connected with the home industry for many years, has seen it in all its stages, is fully conversant with all legislation had on the subject, and is, therefore, abundantly capable of enlightening his fellow-citizens to an extent that few others can achieve.

He has, also, been extensively engaged in foreign commerce and mercantile pursuits of every nature and kind, which has enabled his clear head to see the whole working of the tariff system; and his lucid exposition of it, in its financial and general operation, as set forth in the following letter, cannot but be justly estimated by his fellow-citizens.

This letter, like Mr. Appleton's review of Mr. Walker's Report, has been before published; but we cannot consent that a document of so much value, should be left to the columns of a newspaper for future reference, and, therefore, most cheerfully give place to it; for doing which, we feel satisfied we shall receive the thanks of every friend and patron of the home industry.

Boston, January 16th, 1846.

Dear Sir :—I stated in my letter of the 7th, that I should write to you again, upon the subject of the entire change proposed by the President of the United States, and the Secretary of the Treasury, in our revenue laws. It is no other than the adoption of ad valorem for specific duties, and the reduction of the whole to 20 per cent. ; this being the maximum at which the Secretary supposes the largest revenue can be obtained. I shall not now discuss the rates of duty that will produce the greatest amount of revenue. I will leave the Secretary to settle that question ; but shall endeavour to show what the effects will be upon the country, if his recommendation should be adopted by Congress. I deem the scheme proposed to Congress, in the main, a *currency* question ; and one, if carried out, that will reach in its operation, the occupation and business of every man in the United States. I believe the most economical member of Congress, will agree that thirty millions of dollars will be required, annually, to carry on this Government for the next five years, and that this estimate does not include large sums that may be wanted to settle our affairs with Mexico, Texas, &c., &c. ; and that this sum is to be raised from foreign importations and the public lands. The goods subject to duty, imported the last year, amounted, in round numbers, to 90 millions of dollars, and the goods free of duty, to about 25 millions I have not the returns at hand, and may not be exactly correct as to amounts, but they are near enough to illustrate my arguments ; the former paid an average duty of about 32 per cent., creating a revenue, say, of 28 millions. If the revenue derived from an importation of 90 millions, gave 28 millions of dollars, what amount must be imported to produce the same sum at 20 per cent. ad valorem ?

The answer is 140 millions ; add to this the free goods, about 25 millions, and we have an importation of 165 millions of dollars. Our exports have not exceeded, nor are they likely, at present, to increase above 120 millions ; we then have a deficit of 45 millions to provide for, and how is this balance to be paid ? State stocks are no longer current in Europe. Even the stocks of the United States cannot be negotiated on favourable terms.

We, who are merchants, can answer this question, having often been obliged to make our remittances in coin, when our imports have exceeded our exports.

If we are obliged to import 140 millions of goods, subject to duty, to meet the wants of the Government, it is quite certain, that the coin must be exported to meet the deficiency. If the importations fall short of 140 millions, we then have an empty treasury. In one case, the country will be made bankrupt to fill the treasury : and in the other, the treasury will be bankrupt, and resort to Congress for treasury notes and loans. It may be said that our exports will increase with our imports ; this supposition, I think, fallacious. The policy of Great Britain, and that of all Europe, has been, and is likely to continue, to protect every thing produced either at home or in their Colonies. In Great Britain, the article of cotton is now admitted free, the duty having been repealed the very last year. This was owing to repeated representations of the Manchester spinners to Parliament, as to the necessity of such a measure, in consequence of the competition from foreign countries, in the coarse fabrics manufactured from cotton produced in, and shipped from, the United States. The argument presented in the House of Commons, was, that the Americans had taken possession of every market, where they were admitted on the same terms, with their coarse goods. This is a true representation, and I apprehend the repeal of the duty on cotton, will not enable the British manufacturer to again obtain possession of those markets, for the heavy description of cotton fabrics.

What other article of importance does the Government of Great Britain admit free of duty? I know of none. Cotton is admitted free of duty from necessity. How is it with tobacco? A duty is paid of 1,200 per cent. Wheat is prohibited by the "sliding scale," and in case of a total repeal of the corn laws, very little wheat would be shipped from this country, inasmuch as it can be laid down, in ordinary years of harvest, much cheaper from the Baltic. Beef and pork are burdened with a heavy duty. The duty and charges on a barrel of American pork, laid down in Liverpool, with the commission for sales, amount to $5 75; so that the quantity of this article shipped to England, must be inconsiderable, unless the prices here should be so low as to be ruinous to the farmer. I cannot find in the catalogue of our strictly agricultural products, a single article that is not burdened with a high duty, in England, or other parts of Europe, if it comes in competition with their own products; nor can I discover that there is a disposition on the part of a single European nation, to relax their stringent system of duties on imports from this country. It is possible, that Great Britain may abate her corn laws so far, as to admit Indian corn at a nominal duty. If it should be done, I have little faith in our being able to ship it to advantage. I state the fact, then, that exports will not increase in consequence of a reduction, or even a total repeal, of the present tariff. The duty in Great Britain on all the products of the United States, received in that kingdom, including cotton, is not less than 48 per cent.; and exclusive of cotton, 300 per cent.; and this too, on raw produce generally, where the charge of freight constitutes from one-tenth to one quarter of the cost here, and this is *Free Trade!*

I hope you, of Virginia, will examine this matter, and ask yourselves where the best customers are to be found for your agricultural products. I will just state to you, here, that Massachusetts takes more flour, Indian corn, pork, and many other articles, annually, the productions of the West, as well as of Virginia, than all Europe.

The question then arises, what will be our condition after the proposed plan of low duties goes into operation? In twenty days after the bill becomes a law, it will have reached every country in Europe with which we have trade; the manufactories are all set in motion for the supply of the American market; the merchandise is shipped on account of foreigners, in many cases with double invoices—one set for the custom-house, and another for the *sales*—so that instead of the duty amounting to 20 per cent., it will not, probably, exceed 15 per cent. This has been the experience of the American importers in New York, who, previously to the passage of the tariff of 1842, had (most of them) abandoned the business, not being able to compete successfully with fraudulent foreigners. I will not say that all foreigners commit frauds on the revenue—far from it; but I do say, that enormous frauds have been perpetrated by foreigners, on the revenue, under ad valorem duties, and will be again—prostrating the business of honest foreign and American importers. In less than twelve months after the new plan shall have been in operation, the whole country will be literally surfeited with foreign merchandise; (if it be not so, the revenue will fall far short of the wants of the Government;) we shall then owe a debt abroad of millions of dollars, which must be paid in coin. The exchanges go up to a point that makes it profitable to ship specie; money becomes scarce in the Atlantic cities; yet bills on England and France do not fall; the loans made to the South and West are called in; demands for debts due from those sections of the country, are made; exchange cannot be obtained; produce is purchased and shipped; and when it arrives at the North, it will not command the cost in the West; a paralysis will have struck the business of the country; produce will no longer answer to pay debts due at the North, and the next resort is to coin, which is to be collected and sent down the Mississippi, or over the mountains to Baltimore, Philadelphia, New York, and Boston. Western and Southern credits are cut off, as the people of those sections can no longer promptly meet their engagements. The new States, and the outer circle of the Republic, are the weak points; and the first giving way of the banks is heard from those points, where there is the least amount of capital. We see the storm approaching like a thunder shower in a summer's day; we watch its progress, but cannot escape its fall. It at last reaches the great marts of trade and the exchanges, having swept every thing in its course; and the banks of the Atlantic cities, after a violent effort to maintain their credit and honour, are forced to yield to this Utopian experiment on the currency. I have no hesitation in stating that all this will take place within the space of eighteen months from the time this experimental bill goes into operation; and not a specie-paying bank, doing business, will be found in the United States. Where will be the revenue which was to produce such a mighty sum under low duties? Where is the Treasury, and the Secretary—and the President, and his Cabinet? The Treasury is empty; the Secretary is making his estimates of income for 1849, and preparing to ask Congress for a large *batch* of Treasury notes; or perhaps the deficit is so large that a loan may be required. We have now come to a point of depression in the great business of the country, which has attracted the attention and anxiety of all classes of people, *all* having felt its blight, excepting the great capitalists and money holders, who are reaping golden harvests by the purchase of property, which the wants of the unfortunate throw into the market at ruinous rates. It is now seen, and felt, from the low wages of labour, and the great number of persons unemployed, with the cries of distress from all quarters, that it is the labour, and not the capital of the country, that suffers by violent revulsions caused by unwise legislation. Have the people of the South and West, forgotten their troubles of 1837 to 1842, to the hour of the passage of that law which has redeemed the credit of the Government, and restored prosperity to the country? I have intimated that there is less capital in the new States, than in many of the old ones: it will not be denied that the monied capital of this country is held in the Northern and Eastern States, and that the South and West are usually largely indebted to them. Now, I should be glad to be informed what benefit is to be derived by a planter in Alabama or Mississippi, or a farmer in Ohio or Illinois, by a change, like that I have described, particularly, if, by chance, he should be in debt? Do the people of the South believe they can raise the price of cotton, or be able to negotiate loans, to prosecute the construction of their contemplated railroad? Do Ohio, Louisiana, Illinois, Michigan, believe they are to create a better market for their produce, or sooner complete their harbours, so much desired on the shores of those "inland seas," and be able to negotiate loans, and obtain subscribers to the stock of their intended railroads, by the adoption of this new system of political economy? And now what say the *great States* of New York and Pennsylvania, to this proposed experiment? Can they afford to try it, and are they ready? If they are, it will be adopted; if they are not, the present law will stand, and the country will repose for awhile in happiness and prosperity. Any one would suppose, that those States that are now just emerging from embarrassment, which at one time seemed almost sufficient to overwhelm them in ruin, would be unwilling to try an experiment which is certain, in my judgement, to place them in a position that will be the means of destroying the fair prospects of thousands who are resting in quiet security upon the faith of what they deem a paternal and wise Government. The question of an important alteration in our revenue laws, should not be kept in suspense. The Treasury will feel its effects before the end of the present year. The expectation of a great reduction of duties, prevents the merchants from going on with their usual business. Voyages are delayed, and orders for goods are held back, until this important question shall be settled. I say, therefore, if we are to go through this fiery ordeal, let it come at once; we cannot probably place ourselves in a better condition than we are now, to meet the troubles that await us.

Mr. Walker proposes to substitute ad valorem for specific duties, in opposition to our own experience, and that of almost every other country. I have never yet found an American merchant who has not been in favour of specific duties, wherever it can be done with convenience to the importer and the Government. I confess it is a bold measure to propose a total and entire change of a revenue system, which was established with the Government, and has stood the test of experience through all the trials of political parties and administrations, from Gen. Washington to Mr. Polk. It appears more extraordinary at this time, as the country is in a high state of prosperity. The revenue is enough for all the reasonable wants of the Government, and the people appear to be satisfied with their condition. The resources of the country were never developing more rapidly; the increase of our population, the present year, will probably equal that of the last, which I estimate at 600,000 souls; our wealth, too, has been wonderfully augmented by the construction of railroads; there has been a great increase of our shipping, engaged in the domestic commerce of the country, not only by sea, but upon our rivers and great lakes: the manufacturing interest has been largely extended; and the soil, too, has been made to produce vastly more than at any former period. The whole productive power of the country has been greater in three years, (that is, since the passage of the tariff of 1842,) than during any equal space of time in our national history. There have been three periods of universal distress throughout our land, since the peace of 1783, and in each case under low duties. I appeal to those who remember those periods; and to others, I refer to the annals of our country. Those periods were from 1783 (the conclusion of the revolutionary war) to 1789, 1815 to 1824, 1837 to 1842.

I would respectfully recommend to the Secretary of the Treasury, who appears to have received new light upon the subject of our national economy, to examine the history of the legislation of Congress at the above periods. He will find, in his own department of the Government, an abundance of evidence of the distress that existed under low duties, and a deranged currency.

There is a prevalent idea abroad, that the capital of the country will suffer exceedingly by a revulsion in its business, and that the Tariff of 1842 has operated in favour of the capital, and not the labour of the country. There can be no doubt that capital is generally profitably and safely employed, and well paid. The profits of capital are low, when wages are low; but capital has usually had the power to take care of itself, and does not require the aid of Congress to place it in any other position, than to put the labour in motion. Congress should legislate for the labour, and the capital will take care of itself. I will give you an example of the rate of wages under low duties, and under the Tariff of 1842. In 1841 and 1842, the depression in all kinds of business became so oppressive, that many of the manufacturing establishments in New England were closed, the operatives dismissed, the mechanical trades were still, and every resource for the labouring man seemed dried up.

In the city of Lowell, where there are more than thirty large cotton mills, from six to sixteen thousand spindles each, it was gravely considered by the proprietors whether the mills should be stopped. It was concluded to reduce the wages; this was done several times, until the reduction brought down the wages from about $2 to $1 50 per week, exclusive of board; this operation took place upon between 7,000 and 8,000 females; the mills run on; no sales were made of the goods; the South and West had neither money nor credit, and finally, it was determined to hold out till Congress should act upon the tariff. The bill passed, and of course the mills were kept running, which would not have been the case, if the act had been rejected: and now the average wages paid at Lowell—taking same number of females for the same service—is $2 per week, exclusive of board. Yet Mr. Walker says labour has fallen. Where are the wages for labour, I ask, lower than they were in 1842? Who is to be benefited by the adoption of a system that gives up every thing, and gives no reasonable promise of any thing?

I have succeeded, I trust, in showing that there is no probability of our exports increasing, in consequence of a reduction of the tariff, and that the products of the Western States find the best market among the manufacturers at home. In regard to the Southern and cotton growing States, they are to be greatly benefited by the increase of consumption of their staples at home. No appreciable quantity can be shipped to England if the tariff should be repealed, it being already free of duty. The establishment and successful prosecution of the spinning of cotton in this country, has enabled the planters to obtain, for several years past, at least, an additional cent per pound on the whole crop, and perhaps even more. The Americans are the greatest spinners of that article in the world, the British excepted. This competition has kept the price from falling to a ruinous point on several occasions, and it has been acknowledged by many of the most intelligent planters in the South. Our consumption reached, the last year, one hundred and seventy-six millions of pounds, which is equal to the whole crop of the Union in 1825, and equal to the whole consumption of Great Britain in 1826.

This is a striking fact, and one that should be remembered by the planters. The history of the production and manufacture of cotton is so extraordinary, that I propose to send to you some statistics on the subject, furnished me by a friend. I hope you will not deem me over sanguine, when I tell you that it is my belief that the consumption of cotton in this country will double in eight or nine years, and that it will reach four hundred millions of pounds in 1856; and, further, that we are not only destined to be the greatest cotton growers, but the most extensive cotton spinners, in the world. We have all the elements among ourselves to make us so. The manufacture of cotton is, probably, in its infancy; but a moderate portion of mankind have yet been clothed with this healthful and cheap article. Nothing can stop the progress of this manufacture, but some suicidal legislation, that will prostrate the currency of the country, and deprive the people of the means of consuming. There can be no legislation that will break down the manufacture of cotton and wool, excepting through the operations of the currency. We may be disturbed by low duties; the finer descriptions of cotton and woollens, printed goods, and worsted fabrics, would be seriously affected by low ad valorem duties, but the coarser fabrics, such as are generally consumed by the great body of the people, will be made here under any and all circumstances. If we have competition from abroad, the labour must and will come down; this has been often tested, and our experience establishes the fact.

In Virginia and other Southern States, and even at the West, many persons have believed that the protective system was made by, and for, New England, and that New England, and particularly Massachusetts, could not thrive without it. Now this is an errour: the South and West began the system of high protective duties, for the purpose of creating a market for their produce, (although the principle of discrimination was recognised and established when the first tariff was enacted.) It is not true that we are more dependent on a protective tariff, than the Middle, Western, or Southern States. Those States that possess the smallest amount of capital, are the most benefited by a protective tariff. We have, in New England, a great productive power: in Massachusetts, far greater than any other State, in proportion to population. We have a hardy, industrious, and highly intelligent population, with a perseverance that seldom tires, and we have, also, acquired a considerable amount of skill, which is increasing every day; besides, we have already accomplished a magnificent system of intercommunication between all parts of this section of the country by railroads; this is the best kind of productive power, having reduced the rate of carriage to a wonderful extent; this being done, we have money enough remaining to keep all our labour employed, and prosecute our foreign and domestic commerce without being in debt beyond the limits of our own State. Now, I ask, how we shall stand, compared with Pennsylvania, Ohio, Alabama, Georgia, or Louisiana, when the day of financial trial shall come? I do not deny we shall suffer, but as it has been in times past, we shall go into, and come out of the troubles far stronger than any other State out of New England. It is not my purpose to present to you the balance sheet of Massachusetts, but it is due to her character and her dignity, that she should stand before you in her true position. I have never advocated a protective tariff for my own or the New England States exclusively, nor have those gentlemen with whom I have been associated in this cause, at any time entertained a narrow or sectional view of the question. We have believed it to be for the interest of the whole country, that its labour should be protected, and, so far as I have had to do with the adjustment of those difficult combinations embraced in a tariff bill, I have endeavoured to take care that the interests of all the States were protected, whether they were large or small. I say now to you, and it should be said in Congress, and to the country, that Massachusetts asks no exclusive legislation. If Pennsylvania, New York, and Ohio, the three great States, with Kenlucky, Georgia, Missouri, Alabama, and Louisiana, wish to try an experiment on iron, coal, hemp, cotton bagging, sugar, &c. &c., I am ready, as one citizen of Massachusetts, to meet it, and await, in patient submission, the result, which, I doubt not, will be found within eighteen months, in the realization of all I have predicted. I say again, I would not, if I could, have a tariff made for Massachusetts alone. If, however, there should be a new one, let *our* interests, with those of every other in the Union, share that protection to which we are all entitled, and of which *we* claim our *full* share. I can with confidence assure you, that we shall go upward and onward. *We will work.* If twelve hours' labour in the twenty-four will not sustain us, we can and will work fourteen; and at the same time feel that Congress cannot take the sinews from our arms, or rob us of the intelligence acquired from our system of public schools, established by the foresight and wisdom of our fathers.

At the risk of writing a long letter, I cannot forbear alluding to the fact, that the habitual agitation of this question of the tariff, has worked, in the main, to the advantage of New England.

We were, previous to the war of 1812, an agricultural and navigating people. The American System was forced upon us, and done for the purpose of creating a home market for the products of the soil of the South and West; we resisted the adoption of a system which we honestly believed would greatly injure our navigation, and drive us from our accustomed employments, into a business we did not understand. We came into it, however reluctantly, and soon learned, that with the transfer of our capital, we acquired skill and knowledge in the use of it; and that so far from our foreign commerce being diminished, it was increased, and that our domestic tonnage and commerce were very soon more than quadrupled. The illustrations were so striking in every department of labour, that those who, fifteen years ago, were the strongest opponents among us, have given up their theories, and acknowledged that the revelations are such as to satisfy the most skeptical. We have gone forward steadily, till many descriptions of manufactures are as well settled in New England as the raising of potatoes. Our experience has given us skill, and of course we have confidence in our own resources, that does not exist elsewhere.

When I converse with gentlemen from the South and West respecting the establishment of manufactures, they reply that they should long ago have engaged in it, but the repeal of the tariff, the action of the government, prevented them. Now you cannot blame us, if this constant agitation of the tariff question has tended to give New England, not a monopoly, but advantages which she has not been instrumental in bringing about. I have no doubt we have been gainers on the whole, by these agitations, yet we have at times been great sufferers. I wish those States that have withheld their energies from entering upon these industrial pursuits, to examine this matter, and if I am right, *to take an observation and a new departure.* We have no jealousy whatever concerning the establishment of manufactories in all parts of the country: on the contrary, I believe those gentlemen from the South and West who have been here, will bear witness to the desire on the part of the people who are engaged in manufactures, to impart all the information in their power; there is room for us all. When the Southern and Western States shall manufacture their own clothing, we shall have become extensive exporters of the variety of manufactures produced here. We have the ships, and the men to navigate them. We shall pursue an extensive foreign commerce with manufactures, and bring home the produce of other countries, such as coffee, tea, &c., &c., and pay for the produce of the South and West, with foreign luxuries and necessaries of life. It has often been said here by us, who advocate protection to American labour, that in wearing British cottons, woollens, &c., &c., we were consuming British wheat, beef, pork, &c. I am happy to find authority of the highest respectability for this opinion, in the person of one of the most eminent merchants, as well as one of the best and most honourable men in England—Mr. William Brown of Liverpool, lately the free-trade candidate for Parliament from the county of Lancaster. In a letter to John Rolfe, Esq., a landholder, upon the advantages of free trade, he says, "You next allude to the League wishing to injure you. I presume it will not be denied, that all interests in the kingdom are so linked together, that none of them can suffer without the others being injured. We must sink or swim together.

"Paradoxical as it may appear, I think Great Britain is the largest *grain exporting* country in the world, although it is impossible to estimate, accurately, what quantity of grain, &c., is consumed in preparing £50,000,000 value of exports, by which you are so greatly benefited. It is placed in the laboratory of that wonderful intellectual machine, man, which gives him the physical power, aided by steam, of converting it into broadcloth, calico, hardware, &c., &c.; and in these shapes, your wheats find their way to every country in the world."

I thank Mr. Brown for the clear statement he has presented of the importance of a home market, and commend this extract from his letter to the consideration of every farmer in the United States; it is perfectly sound, and applies with particular force to our present condition. To place the people in a condition of permanent and solid prosperity, you must encourage home industry, by obtaining the greatest amount of production; this can only be obtained by diversifying labour, which will bring with it high wages: and unless the labour is well paid, our country cannot prosper. Agriculture, the foundation of all wealth, depends on production, and a market for those products—the encouragement of agriculture, in the establishment of manufactures, which, if maintained, will be certain to secure a market.

I ask the farmer to look for a moment to the following statement. American flour in Cuba pays a duty of about $10 per barrel; in Rio Janeiro $5 to $6, and in many other ports the duties vary from 50 to 150 per cent.; in return, we take coffee, most of which we pay for in coin, *free of duty*—and this is free trade. We have, too, treaties of reciprocity with foreign countries, and, among others, Great Britain, (not including her colonies,) by which her ships are admitted into our ports on the same terms as our own; they come freighted with her minerals and manufactures, which are sold here, and take in return a variety of articles, the produce of the United States, such as timber, lumber, fish, &c., touch at New Brunswick, or some other colony, and go home, free of duty. We have, too, triangular voyages made from England to Jamaica, and other British islands, with cargoes, and thence to the Southern States, where they load with cotton, tobacco, and other produce, for England: this, too, is called free trade. I will not pursue this branch of the subject, but give you a fact. Not long since, the foreign carrying trade was nearly all in our own hands; now, the reciprocity system, not including the colonies of foreign nations, gives to foreigners more than one-third of all the carrying trade of the United States! I cannot believe the time is far distant when the Government of the United States will protect, as it ought, the foreign navigating interest of this great country. If we would have American seamen to man our navy, the mercantile marine must be protected in the carrying of our own productions. One more fact, and I will close these long, and, I fear you will think, desultory remarks. Some years since, a few bales of American coarse cottons were sent from this country to Hindostan, as a commercial experiment; the superiority of the fabric, and the material out of which it was made, gradually brought the goods into notice and use in that country, and the annual exportation from the United States increased from a few bales up to three and four thousand per annum. The British manufacturers were much annoyed at this interference, and it is presumed that it was through their influence that the East India Company (the government of that country) have repeatedly augmented the discriminating duty on these goods, (which are called drillings,) for the purpose of protecting their own manufactures against those of the United States. Prior to 1836, the duty was five per cent. in favour of British goods; in that year it was increased to 8½ per cent; a few years after augmented to 10½ per cent: and even this rate of deferential duty proved insufficient to keep out the Americans, who drove a profitable trade notwithstanding the great difference against them.

And now, within a few months, the East India Company have been compelled again to increase the discriminating duty to 15 per cent., in order to exclude our goods altogether; and this difference will, without doubt, accomplish the object. These facts are deserving of a passing remark, as illustrative of the energies and resources of the United States. As late as the declaration of the last war in 1812, this country imported almost all its coarse cotton fabrics from Hindostan, whence they came literally by ship loads, and were paid for almost altogether in coin. No country seemed to be more abundant in means necessary to supply such goods cheaply, than Hindostan; its soil furnished an abundance of cotton, which, though not of equal quality to that of the United States, was much less in price, and labour was cheaper than in any country in the world. Cotton spinning machinery was available through the medium of British capital, and the manufactures received a protection of 10½ per cent. against foreign interference. No country seemed more secure from foreign competition in these goods than Hindostan, and least of all, was there fear of competition from the United States, a country fifteen thousand miles distant, where a day's labour will earn about 25 lbs. of good rice, whilst in Hindostan it obtains less than 10 lbs. of very inferiour rice. But the American planter furnished a better raw cotton—the manufacturer a better and cheaper fabric—the ship-owner a speedy and cheaper conveyance. Their united efforts drove the British manufacturer of these coarse goods from the largest British colonial market, and which the Americans would now be in possession of, but for the interposition of the East India Company, with another protective duty to sustain their manufactories. I have no fault to find with the course pursued by the British in these regulations. I have introduced these facts, to exhibit to you the transcendant folly of attempting a system of low duties and free trade, where it is all on one side. I have not yet known the British Government to reduce the duties to a point that has reached a single important interest. Their free trade and low duties never apply to any article that seriously competes with their own labour, nor are they likely to adopt such measures. The free trade of the political economists of Great Britain, is a transcendental philosophy which is not likely to be adopted by any government on the face of the globe, unless it be the Chinese, and we have already the *earnest* of the effect of low duties on the internal condition of that country. The trade of that empire is fast approaching to barter, the precious metals having been drained to pay for the foreign products introduced into it.

I am aware that I have written a long letter, but I could not well abridge, consistently with glancing at many topics in which I take a deep interest. The subject is boundless, and I would cheerfully carry out, by illustrations and examples, many of the points upon which I have touched, but I forbear for the present. When I have the pleasure to meet you, we can discuss all these questions, embracing not only the present condition, but the future prospects and destiny of our beloved country, for which I entertain the strongest attachment. Our strength and glory is in upholding and maintaining the Union.

I shall send, in a few days, statistics furnished me by a friend, who is intelligent, careful, and accurate, in these matters, and who holds himself responsible for all that will be stated.

I pray you, my dear sir, to accept the assurances with which I remain, most faithfully, your friend and obedient servant,

ABBOTT LAWRENCE.

To the Hon. William C. Rives,
Castle Hill, Albemarle County, Virginia.

SPRINGFIELD, MASSACHUSETTS,

The fertile alluvial lands along the Connecticut river, appear to have early attracted the attention of the settlers about Massachusett's Bay. Repeated applications were made to the General Court for leave to remove thither, but for one or two years without success, though the prohibition did not prevent exploring parties from going out, and making arrangements for settlement. In May, 1638, liberty having been granted to the inhabitants of Roxbury to remove to any place they thought proper, provided they contiuued under the jurisdiction of Massachusetts, and did not interfere with the rights of other plantations, Mr. William Pynchon, with others, in the course of the year, came to a place on the Connecticut river called by the Indians Agawam, and built a house, and made other preparations for a final settlement. Mr. Pynchon and his companions, as is supposed, passed the winter in Roxbury; but in the spring of the following year, 1636, returned with a number of others and their families. An agreement was entered into by the settlers, which was dated May 14th, 1636, and the original of which is still preserved. It consisted of fifteen articles, the first of which provides for the settlement of a minister; the second limits the number of families to forty, not to exceed fifty; and the remaining thirteen relate to the division of the lands, the government, and the means of meeting the expenses of the settlement.

In 1640, the name of the place was changed from Agawam to Springfield, by a general vote in "town meeting," out of regard, says a historian, "to Mr. Pynchon, who, before coming to this country, had a mansion in a town of that name, near Chelmsford, in the county of Essex;". a compliment due to Mr. Pynchon, not only because of his high standing—he being named one of the patentees in the colonial charter of Massachusetts, and having been appointed a magistrate and assistant in England in 1629, at the time of the appointment of Governor Winthrop, and the other officers—but also because of his active efforts in behalf of the early settlement. Some uncertainty exists as to the date of the incorporation of the town; most probably, however, it was in 1641, as from that time it was recognised by the Legislature, by the name of the "town of Springfield." Its original limits, by various purchases from the natives, and grants from the Legislature, were very extensive, embracing a territory nearly twenty-five miles square, and including many of the present towns on both sides of the Connecticut river. It soon became an important post against the Indians, and being adjacent to Connecticut, and the only town bordering on that colony, it was for a long time involved in disputes with its government.

Such was the early settlement of Springfield, the *first* in Western Massachusetts, and "itself the parent of many others." The town rapidly increased, settlements being extended in every direction. For forty years the inhabitants lived in peace with surrounding Indian tribes; but when king Philip's war broke out in 1675, Springfield suffered with other towns. In the night of the 3rd or 4th of October, some three hundred of Philip's warriours were admitted into an Indian fort two miles below the town, where they lay concealed, waiting an opportunity to inflict a blow which should at once cut off the settlers; and, on the morning of the 5th, they made an attack, killing three men and one woman, and destroying twenty dwelling-houses, and twenty-five barns. Having completed their work of destruction, the Indians precipitately retreated.

During the Revolutionary war, the town, in common with the country generally, felt the pressure of the struggle for independence. "In the time of the war, it was a recruiting post and a rendezvous for soldiers, and, being centrally situated, easy of access, and, at the same time, so far inland as to be out of the reach of the sudden invasions of the enemy, it was early fixed upon as a suitable place for making and repairing the various munitions of war, and a depot for military stores." And when the subject of a national armoury, for the manufacture of arms, came under the consideration of the General Government, the convenience of the place, the arsenals, magazine, and shops already here, induced its selection for that purpose. Thus was laid the foundation for much of its increase and present prosperity.

Springfield was, in part, the theatre of the movements of the insurgents, during the "Shays' Rebellion." In December, 1786, Shays, with three hundred malcontents, marched into the town, and took possession of the court-house, and prevented the sitting of the court appointed to be holden at that time. In the January following, an attempt was made by eleven hundred, or more, headed by Shays, to take possession of the United States arsenal, which was, however, prevented by a force collected under General Shepard. The insurgents were admonished to discontinue their approach; no heed being paid to the request, they were finally fired upon, and three men were killed and one wounded, whereupon the whole body immediately retreated.

Since the latter event, nothing of particular historical interest has occurred. The town has rapidly increased in wealth and population, and its present condition and future prospects are very flattering. In manufacturing importance, it is second only to Lowell; and it is, beyond doubt, destined soon to become one of the most important commercial depots in New England, being in the centre of a fertile region of country, favourably situated for river commerce, and nearly equi-distant on the line of the Western Railroad from Boston and Albany, also the terminus of the New Haven, Hartford, and Springfield Railroad, which will soon be extended to New York, and of the Connecticut River Railroad, which is in progress of completion to Greenfield, and will, doubtless, in time, be extended much further up the Connecticut valley.

Springfield abounds in excellent water power; that of the Chicopee river alone, within the limits of the town, it has been ascertained, is equal to to that of the Merrimac at Lowell. Not more than half of this is yet occupied. On Mill river there are numerous flour and paper mills, machine shops, iron foundries, and the forging works connected with the United States armoury. Cabotville, on the Chicopee river, about three miles north from the railroad depot, is an important manufacturing village, which has entirely grown up within a few years past, and now contains a population of more than four thousand. The place having been selected by a company for manufacturing purposes, in 1831, a canal was opened, and buildings were erected for the manufacture of machinery. Two years after, the Cabot Company, with a capital of $500,000, commenced building mills for the manufacture of cotton cloth, and was followed, successively, by the Perkins Company, with a capital of $500,000, and the Dwight Company, with a capital of $700,000, making in all a capital of $1,700,000, with an annual manufacture of from fourteen to fifteen millions of yards of cloth, and an annual consumption of more than ten thousand bales of cotton, giving employment to more than fifteen hundred hands. The Ames Company have, also, at the same place, establishments for the manufacture of swords, brass cannon, machinery, and cutlery. Swords are made, varying in value from two to one thousand dollars, and all the work is done on the premises, from the forging of the blade, to the most exquisite finish. The swords and cannon are principally manufactured for the United States

Government, and employment is given to about one hundred and fifty workmen. Besides these, there are other manufactories of less note, for machinery, pins, shuttles, &c. The Connecticut River Railroad passes through the village, and freight boats from the Connecticut river can land near the factories. The facilities thus afforded for railroad and water communication, rendering the place alike favourabls for manufactures and business.

At Chicopee Falls, a mile and a half further up the Chicopee river, is another considerable manufacturing village. The Chicopee Company have in operation there four large cotton mills, with a capital of $700,000, annually manufacturing six millions of yards of cloth, with an annual consumption of five thousand bales of cotton. The Ames Company, also, have establishments there, for the manufacture of carbines and pistols for the United States navy, and machinery of various kinds. A branch from the Connecticut River Railroad is about being constructed from Cabotville to this village, which will greatly increase its facilities for communication.

The manufacture of arms at the United States armoury also constitutes a considerable department in the industry of the town. Twelve thousand muskets are annually manufactured, valued at $144,000, giving employment to some two hundred and fifty workmen, and calling into use a capital of $727,000. Since the foundation of the establishment, five hundred thousand stand of arms have been manufactured, of which one hundred and forty thousand are stored in the arsenal, and their showy arrangement is well worthy the attention of visiters.

Important and interesting statistics, comprising almost every branch of industry carried on in the town, on the 1st of April, 1845, and the value of the manufactures for the year ending that date, have been prepared by the assessors of the town, during the past season. A few, only, are presented.

No. of cotton mills,	10
Do. spindles,	63,172
Cotton consumed for the year ending April 1st, 1845, (lbs.)	6,215,566
Cotton cloth of various kinds manufactured, (yds.)	17,864,351
Gross value of cloth manufactured,	$1,341,774
Capital invested in the manufacture of cotton,	$2,400,000
No. of hands employed,	1,736
No. of woollen mills,	3
No. of sets of woollen machinery,	6
No. of pounds of wool consumed in the year ending as above,	117,000
No. of yards of woollen cloth of various kinds manufactured,	242,000
Gross value of woollen cloth manufactured,	$85,000
Capital invested in woollen manufacture,	$14,000
No. of hands employed,	50
No. of iron foundries,	4
No. of tons of iron castings manufactured,	1,200
Value of do. do. do.	$61,200
Capital invested in said business,	$21,000
No. of hands employed in the same,	41
No of machine shops,	2
Value of machinery manufactured,	$105,000
Capital invested in the business,	$65,000
No. of hands employed,	110
Cutlery establishments,	1
Value of cutlery manufactured,	$40,000
Capital invested,	$20,000
No. of hands employed,	44

Private establishments for the manufacture of fire arms,	2
No. of arms of various kinds manufactured,	5,100
Value thereof,	$45,000
Capital invested,	$25,200
No. of hands employed,	49
Brass cannon manufactories,	1
No. manufactured, (six pounders,)	50
Value thereof,	$17,000
Capital invested,	$10,000
Hands employed,	6
Paper mills,	2
Tons of stock used in the year ending as above,	1,000
Reams of paper manufactured,	90,000
Value do. do.	$100,000
Capital invested,	$75,000
Hands employed,	125
Establishments for the manufacture of railroad cars, carriages, &c.	8
Value thereof manufactured,	$29,425
Capital invested,	$17,800
Hands employed,	65

In addition to what has already been said, and the above exhibit, which is but a part of what might have been presented, to form a proper estimate of the industrial resources of Springfield, one should also take into consideration the great number of mechanics, such as carpenters, masons, smiths, and other artisans, who are the necessary accessories to, and form part of a manufacturing population. And besides, the important centre which the town has become, and the ease with which it is approached from all sides, has rendered it a place of a very extensive commercial trade, both wholesale and retail, for the supply not only of its own inhabitants, but also, to a considerable extent, of the surrounding country.

Springfield being the shire-town of Hampden county, the courts are frequently in session here. Six newspapers are published—one daily, one tri-weekly, and the others weekly. There are three banks, the united capital of which amounts to $600,000. In the respect of hotels, whether the number, the excellence of buildings, or the entertainment and accommodations provided for guests, be considered, the town is probably surpassed by no other place of similar size in the whole country.

While the citizens are busy in providing individual competence for themselves, they have not been unmindful of the wants of the public. With commendable zeal and liberality, they have provided for those objects which tend to promote the convenience and safety, or the happiness and prosperity of the community. The roads and bridges are generally well made, and kept in good repair. Within the past two months, six thousand dollars was voted to be raised for building a bridge over the Chicopee river. A large brick building, as an alms-house, with a suitable farm attached, was some years ago provided for the comfortable maintenance of the poor. The fire department, under the State law providing for "fire districts," is well organised; rarely will be found a more spirited and efficient corps of firemen; the engines are both beautiful and powerful, and kept in excellent order. In the regard for schools, Springfield will take high rank, even in Massachusetts. In each of the three villages, is a high-school, provided with able principals, supported by efficient assistants, besides numerous primary schools, which are well cared for. A new school-house has just been completed in Chickopee Falls village, at an expense of about seven thousand dollars, which is itself a model. Ten thousand dollars are raised by the town, for the support of public schools the current year.

The principal village of Springfield, and to which the name of the town most properly and usually applies, is very pleasantly situated on the east bank of the Connecticut. The land is level for a small distance back from the river, and then rises with a gentle ascent for nearly a mile, terminating in a plane of moderate fertility, which extends east for considerable distance. The streets are generally well laid out, abounding in well built houses of wood or brick, and the umbrageous trees, with which many streets are lined, add greatly to their beauty. There are numerous churches and other public buildings, creditable alike to the taste and liberality of the citizens. Much of the business is transacted on Main street, which is spacious, more than two miles in length, running parallel with the river, and containing many splendid buildings. East of it, on the high ground, are the principal buildings of the U. S. Armory, which are all of brick, painted of a uniform colour, and arranged around a spacious square; and with the U. S. flag floating at the "mast head" in the centre, altogether present a fine appearance. From Prospect street, near the armory, a view is obtained, which for the beautiful and picturesque, is unsurpassed. At a single glance, one sees the churches, dwelling houses, and gardens, interspersed in the town below; the Connecticut moving onward to the south; and in the distance, to the north, the Green Mountain range, skirting the horizon as far as the eye can reach.

There are many pleasant streets, and elegant private residences, both in the lower and more elevated parts of the town, but those along the high grounds are the most attractive. With the rapid growth of the place, its borders are extending, new streets are being opened, and mansions are built and building farther away from the centre, in situations of much beauty.

A place well worthy the attention of the stranger, is the cemetery, about a mile east from the centre of the town. It extends over an area of about twenty-five acres, interspersed with hill, and vale, and running brook. Though in extent of grounds and costliness of monuments, not to be compared with some others, yet in the beauties of nature, in its undulating surface, its wooded hillsides, its springs and fountains, it is perhaps unrivalled.

Court Square, in the very heart of the town, is a neat enclosure, and in the summer time a fountain plays from the centre, adding much to its beauty. The Town Hall is a large brick edifice, the first story of which is occupied by merchants, the second for public meetings, and the third for general purposes. In the principal hall is a full length portrait of Washington, a copy from Stewart's original, by Elwell, a resident artist, and is considered an excellent picture.

The means for moral, intellectual, and social improvement, abound.

The Young Men's Institute, organized in Oct., 1843, though designed particularly for young men, as its name indicates, yet embraces among its numbers all classes of the community. Certificates of membership can be had for a small sum, which entitles the holder to all the privileges of the association. Its library contains nearly three thousand volumes, most of them valuable and standard works, and is rapidly increasing. Pleasant and convenient rooms are leased, and on the table of the reading room, may be found the leading periodicals and newspapers of the day, for the use of the members. During the winter season, a course of public lectures is sustained.

Various societies and associations for benevolent and philanthropic purposes exist, and religionists of almost every denomination, are known. There are twenty places for public worship, within the limits of the town, of which six are Trinitarian Congregational, two Unitarian Congregational, one Protestant Episcopal, four Methodist Episcopal, one Wesleyan Methodist, three Baptist, two Universalist, and one Roman Catholic.

When the early settlers first came to Springfield, they were the only white inhabitants between the Connecticut river and Watertown, near Boston. In 1791, a few years after the adoption of the National Constitution, the population of the town numbered one thousand five hundred and seventy-four, and is now about fifteen thousand. But great as have been the developments of the past, it is, perhaps, not too much to say, that considering the natural and artificial advantages which the town possesses, its developments in the future, will be yet greater. It was the first settled town in Western Massachusetts, and is now the most populous and important.

SECRETARY WALKER'S REPORT, AND TABLES.

We may truly say, we have *at length* the long looked for document, "Mr. Walker's report, with all its addenda"—for we have been long waiting for it—and it has come, numbering 957 pages!!! Of course, it will not be expected of us to go into a court and jury examination of tables and testimony, so extensive. Not that we should fear it, did time and space permit. We should ask nothing better, than fully to show how triumphantly the cause we have so sincerely at heart, is sustained, by far the largest number of the intelligent witnesses, who have answered the queries of the Secretary, both for and against the tariff. But we do not, for the present, at least, propose to treat our readers with such an exhibition. We have much to say, first, by way of opening to the cause, before we examine the witnesses. Besides, Mr. Walker is playing a great role, and he must not be overlooked. To commence, then, with the writer of this extraordinary document, we assure him, in all sincerity, that we have no prejudice against him, personally, and that we have every desire to treat him with due courtesy; but in so doing, we shall not mince the matter in hand; the cause is, in our opinion, the great cause of the country; we have studied it for more than twenty years—examining its bearings, not only in this country, but in many other parts of the world—and it is now our purpose to put forth a plain unvarnished statement of the whole matter, without fear, favour, or prejudice. We think then, that this report is the most arrogant document that was ever issued by a public functionary in any country.

In the face of legislative action by almost every Congress that has assembled under the constitution, commencing with the very first session, filled, as was the first Congress, with the sages of the revolution, with the men who had planned the glorious constitution under which we live—

men who had, in the cabinet and in the field, evinced a high and holy devotion to the great cause of human liberty, of which, but few of the would-be patriots of the present day, can form a proper estimate—in the face of the recorded opinions and the official acts of every President of the United States, from that illustrious man who has filled the world with his renown, down to the present incumbent, who forms the only exception—in the face of all these authorities, which, we are proud to say, have given their sanction to the system of protection, Mr. Robert J. Walker, has undertaken to deny the knowledge, if not impugn the motives, of all the previous Presidents and Congresses, and to issue forth his dictum, that there is a revenue limit in adjusting the tariff, which Congress may not exceed, and by quoting the power to lay and collect taxes, and reasoning upon it, without any notice, whatever, of that more important provision of the constitution, which gives to Congress the power to legislate for the general welfare; Mr. Walker issues forth an ex-cathedra opinion, the amount of which is, that every law passed by Congress, protecting the industry of the country, has been unconstitutional; and that every President who has signed such a law, has exceeded his powers. Have we, then, said too much, in branding as *most arrogant*, a report which begins with a declaration that all those who have preceded the author of it, in the administration of the Government, have overstepped their authority. Washington, Adams, Jefferson, Madison, Monroe, J. Q. Adams, Jackson, Van Buren, Tyler! what are names like these, when brought in competition or opposition to Robert J. Walker? We repeat, therefore, that the great characteristic of this report, is, unblushing affrontery. But it has other features, which, if not so striking, come precisely from the same source—the same arrogant tone of mind; it is full of assumptions; it first makes the law by which all are to be governed, and it then denounces the present state of things, by making unwarranted and unsustained allegations, almost without number.

We are fully aware of the tactics of the Secretary. They are the tactics always resorted to by the writers of the school to which he belongs.

The plan is to take the highest ground of affirmative denunciation, with a view to put the opposing party into the dilemma of proving a negative. Thus the whole protective system is denounced as unconstitutional, and the present tariff is said to be "unjust and unequal, as well in its details, as in the principles upon which it is founded; its discriminations are alledged to be "in favour of manufactures, and against agriculture"—"in favour of manufactures, and against the mechanic"—"in favour of the manufacturer, and against the merchant"—and against the ship building and navigating interests; "in favour of manufactures, and against exports" —and finally, "in favour of the rich, and against the poor." This denunciatory style is adopted, and tables and testimony, amounting in all, as we have said, to 957 pages, are added, trumped up for the purpose of involving the subject in great mystery and perplexity. But so far as we are concerned, we are determined they shall fail of their intended effect.

We shall assume the ground that protection to the industry of a people, or nation, so as to develope all its physical and moral powers for securing its independence, is the chief object for which governments are instituted; and that the government which does not, in fact, do this, fails in its most essential duty.

Before going into any examination, therefore, of this report, we have something to say about the question of protection, as it presents itself to the American people; and shall examine somewhat into the nature of our local positions, as regards the question of population. What portion of it more particularly requires this protection; what portion is opposed to it, and why; and then, as far as the delay in giving the report to the public, will permit in this number, we shall show what is proven by reliable testimony, and how it sustains the positions assumed by Mr. Walker.

There are, connected with this matter, some very important motives on the part of the opponents to protection, which lie concealed at the very bottom of the subject, and are never thought of in discussions on the tariff. They ought to be brought to light—should be well examined and understood, to enable us fully to comprehend the matter in hand, and we propose now to state them.

And first, of our population, taken from the census of 1840.

In connexion with our population, the real question at issue is, mainly, a question of the profits of labour; of the labour of freemen, for their own profit, use, and benefit; and the labour of slaves for the profit, use, and benefit of their masters.

This we propose now to show. The whole population of the slave States, and the manner in which it is distributed, is given in the following table from Professor Tucker:

Table showing the Population in the slave-holding States, and how it was distributed among the three classes, on the 1st of June, 1840.

STATES AND TERRITORIES.	Whole Population.	Whites.	Free Coloured.	Slaves.	PER CENTAGE OF		
					Whites	F. Col'd	Slaves.
Delaware, ...	78,085	58,561	16,919	2,605	74.9	21.7	3.4
Maryland, ...	470,019	318,204	62,078	89,737	67.7	13.2	19.1
District of Columbia,	43,712	30,657	8,361	4,694	70.1	10.7	19.1
Virginia, ...	1,239,797	740,968	49,842	448,987	59.8	4.	36.2
North Carolina, ...	753,419	484,870	22,732	245,817	64.4	3.	32.6
South Carolina, ...	594,398	259,084	8,276	327,038	43.6	1.4	55.
Georgia,....	691,392	407,695	2,753	280,944	59.	.4	40.6
Florida, ...	54,477	27,943	817	25,7 1	51.3	1.5	47.2
Alabama, ...	590,756	335,185	2,039	253,532	56.7	.3	42.9
Mississippi, ...	375,654	179,074	1,369	195,211	47.6	.4	52.
Louisiana, ...	352,411	158,457	25,502	168,452	44.9	7.2	47.8
Arkansas, ...	97,574	77,174	465	19,935	78.7	1.1	20.4
Tennessee, ...	829,210	640,627	5,524	183,059	77.5	.7	22.1
Kentucky, ...	779,828	590,253	7,317	182,258	75.2	.9	23.4
Missouri, ...	383,702	323,888	1,574	58,240	84.4	.4	15.2
Total, ...	7,334,434	4,632,640	215,568	2,486,226	63.41	2.92	33.67

It appears from this table, that the number of white persons in the slave States, amounts to 4,632,640. The population of the free States, is shown, by the same author, to be 9,556,915.

Now, we aver this question to be one having an intimate connexion with the profits of our labour. In this stage of the subject, we say not how those profits are divided; what proportion result to capital, and what to the labourer; we leave that for the moment, by no means, however, evading it, but merely postponing its consideration.

Let us look at it for a moment in the proposed view. The following statement shows how the free and the slave population of the United States stand, in relation to each other, so far as the public industry is concerned; selected, also, with great care, from Professor Tucker's work.

Statement of the white and slave population of the U. States, and their employments, as shown by the census of 1840, *according to Professor Tucker of Virginia.*

Total white population of the free States,	9,556,915
do. do. do. slave States,	4,632,640
Total United States,	14,189,555
Total working and professional classes in the United States, including whites, slaves, and free blacks,	4,798,870

Persons engaged in manual labour and professions.

	Whites.	Slaves.	Free Bl'cks	Total.
Free States,	2,483,012	....	68,764	2,551,776
Slave States,	1,166,378	994,490	86,226	2,247,094
Total United States,	3,649,390	994,490	154,990	4,798,870

Professor Tucker, also, estimates the annual products of the industry of the slave States, including agriculture, manufactures, commerce, mining, the forests, and the fisheries, as follows:

Delaware,	$5,252,535
Maryland,	28,821,661
Virginia,	76,769,032
North Carolina,	32,422,198
South Carolina,	27,173,536
Georgia,	35,980,363
Alabama,	28,961,325
Mississippi,	29,739,338
Louisiana,	35,044,959
Arkansas,	6,888,395
Tennessee,	37,973,861
Missouri,	15,830,444
Kentucky,	38,624,191
Illinois,	18,981,995
Florida,	2,976,657
District of Columbia,	1,971,593
Total,	$423,411,613

The same author gives the estimate of the productive labour of the free States, including the same pursuits.

Maine,	$26,462,705
New Hampshire,	19,556,141
Vermont,	25,143,191
Massachusetts,	75,470,297
Rhode Island,	13,001,223
Connecticut,	28,023,737
New York,	193,806,433
New Jersey,	29,672,426
Pennsylvania,	131,033,655
Ohio,	63,906,678
Indiana,	23,532,631
Michigan,	7,026,290
Wisconsin Territory,	1,905,600
Iowa Territory,	1,182,106
Total,	$639,723,113

Thus, it will be seen, that in the free States, 2,551,776 persons, (of whom only 68,764 are coloured, and these freemen,) produced in 1839, $639,723,118; while in the slave States, 2,247,094 persons, (of whom 994,490 are slaves, and 86,226 free blacks,) produced in the same year, only $423,411,613. The free States producing about fifty per cent. more, in proportion to the persons employed, than the slave States.

Now this greater prosperity resulting from free labour, and the immense advantages of a free population, over one mixed up with slaves, is too obvious to pass unnoticed by Southern men, and instead of attributing it to the right causes, it excites their jealousy, and this jealousy creates a hostility to Northern pursuits—a prominent one of which is manufactures; hence the hostility to manufactures and the tariff.

Instead of dividing their own labour, and commencing to manufacture themselves, this jealousy, for a long time, prevented any manufactures from being undertaken in the South. We are happy, however, to see by the answers to Mr. Walker's queries, which we shall notice hereafter, that this prejudice is so far done away, that manufactures have latterly increased and are increasing in the South; but this is episode. We resume now the subject of slave labour, and shall proceed to show what Southern writers say on the value of it, when employed in raising cotton and sugar; and shall, also, notice the difference in that value, when the hands are employed on the worn out soils of the Atlantic States, and on the rich lands of the South West, believing, as we do, that this difference connected with the want of industry and economy in the South, constitute the great evil which is falsely attributed to the protective policy.

We have before us a book said to be written by Mr. Ware, under the title of "Notes on Political Economy, as applicable to the United States, by a Southern Planter," and published in New York, by Leavitt, Trow, & Co., in 1844, from which we make an extract, to show this difference of the product of slave labour, in different sections.

"Let us now calculate what cotton can be grown for, when prices get down to a mere support for master and slave. With the proper economy, by the owner living on his place, deriving his household and table expenses from it, and clothing and feeding his own slaves, his annual expenses, counting salt, iron, medicine, taxes, wrapping for his cotton, and overseer's wages, do not exceed two cents a pound on the product or crop; all over that is profit, *in their sense*,—that is, over and above annual expenses. I will give the detail to make this clear. A plantation of fifty hands, *makes the average* of seven bales to the hand, weighing four hundred and fifty pounds; this is three hundred and fifty bales. Suppose two cents for expenses, this amounts to $3,150 on the crop. This crop sells for four cents a pound, nett and clear of charges for transportation, insurance, and commissions for selling, leaves $3,150 profit for the luxuries of the owner, who gets his necessaries out of the plantation by living on it. This is a very pretty sum, and half of it would be ample for him, which would reduce cotton to three cents. As to insurance, the slaves not only, unfortunately, insure themselves, but give a large increase, which grows up with the owner's children, and furnishes them with outfits by the time they need them. Now, I will go into a calculation to show that two cents a pound cover the annual expenses." Here follow the items, taking a plantation of fifty hands as a basis. "For overseer, $500; for salt, $20; iron, $30; medicines, $20; doctor's bill, $100, for you can contract by the year, and it is often done at two dollars a head; bagging, and rope to wrap it, at twelve and a half cents for the one, and five cents for the other, amounts to $300; taxes, $100; sundry small things, $100, all told." The writer speaks from experience, for he is a planter of cotton, and owns slaves. All this amounts to $1,070, much below the allowance of two cents a pound, amounting, as we have seen, to $3,150. I only wish to show that we can grow it at three cents a pound, and have a living profit.

We have made this quotation to show that some planters calculate upon seven bales to the hand—it shows much more, but for the present, we shall only use it for that purpose. But, further to illustrate the cost of raising cotton, we quote from page 715 of Mr. Walker's Document, No. 6, attached to his report.

1,636 lbs. of cotton, supposing an average of 6 cents,..............	$98 16
Deduct working expenses,.......	30 00
Nett product per hand, ...	$68 16

This calculation would make but little more than three and a half bales of 450 lbs. per hand.

Still further to illustrate our present subject, we quote from a pamphlet published in 1845, in Charleston, by William Gregg, Esquire, of that place. At page 49 of his pamphlet, he says—

"Suppose the protective system to be wholly abandoned by the country, how will the change affect our condition as a State? Will it bring back the rich treasures that have left us? Will it bring back the enterprising citizens that have removed from our State to settle in others? Will it be the means of resuscitating our worn out soil? Shall not the sound still continue to be rung in our ears of *ten bales to the hand* in Mississippi, and three in Carolina? So long as we make the culture of cotton our chief employment, will not the same causes continue to exist that are now depopulating our State? Yes they will! and until we make a radical change in our pursuits, our wealthy and enterprising citizens will continue to leave us. Let us then set about producing the change: let us endeavour to bring about such a state of things as shall invite the industry, if not capital, of other countries, to our State. *Let us try to cultivate a good feeling among our people for our Northern brethren.* We have no lack of trading men from among this class of persons; let us offer inducements that shall bring their working men to our delightful climate—they will soon replace the capital that has left our State; they will teach our children lessons of industry and economy; they will furnish materials for academic schools recommended by our governor; they will teach us the value of thousands of acres of swamp land in South Carolina yet covered with their primeval forests; they will teach us lessons in agriculture that will prove to us that the money expended for an agricultural survey has not been spent in vain; *and, above all, they will give some of our wise men practical lessons in political economy.* Such a change would revive the trade of our city, and bring about a new and flourishing state of things in South Carolina."

Let us see what Mr. Gregg has to say further on the subject. "My recent visit to the Northern States, has fully satisfied me that the true secret of our difficulties lies in the want of energy on the part of our capitalists, and ignorance and laziness on the part of those who ought to labour. We need never look for thrift while we permit our immense timber forests, granite quarries, and mines, to lie idle, and supply ourselves with hewn granite, pine boards, laths, and shingles furnished by the *lazy* dogs of the North. Ah!—worse than this; we see our back country farmers, many of whom are too lazy to mend a broken gate, or repair the fences to protect the crops from the neighbouring stock, actually supplied with their axe, hoe, and broom handles, pitch-forks, rakes, &c., by the *indolent* mountaineers of New Hampshire and Massachusetts. The time was, when every old woman in the country had her gourd from which the country gardens were supplied with seeds; we now find it more convenient to permit this duty to devolve on our careful friends, the Yankees. Even our boat oars, and handspikes for rolling logs, are furnished ready made to our hands: and what jim-crack can possibly be invented of which we are not the purchasers? These are the drains which are impoverishing the South—these are the true sources of all our difficulties. Need I add, to further exemplify our excessive indolence, that the Charleston market is supplied by fish and wild game by Northern men, who come out here as regularly as the winter comes, for this purpose; and from our own waters and forests, realize, in the course of one winter, a sufficiency to purchase a small farm in New England."

Now, does not Mr. Gregg show why Northern labour produces so much more than is produced in the South by slave labour? Does he not clearly show, that depending upon slave labour enervates and destroys the industry of the whites; and is it any wonder that the free labour of the North should produce, when aided by labour-saving machinery, one-half more than the mixed labour of the South?

We shall, bye and bye, show what might be done for their relief, if they would turn their attention to manufactures, from facts furnished by Mr. Walker; and we are not without hopes, that what they have already done may open their eyes, which it certainly would do, were it not for the indolence and want of energy described by Mr. Gregg, connected with the prejudice got up and sustained by demagogues for party purposes. The fact should not be omitted to be noticed here, that the first idea of manufactures originated in the Southern and Middle States, and that the North and East were driven into it as a matter of necessity, as stated by the Hon. Abbott Lawrence in a previous part of this number of our work. As colonies, and as late as 1789, Georgia and South Carolina made indigo in no small quantities, but it failed; and why? Because England established its manufacture in Bengal. Mr. Tucker, a representative in Congress, from South Carolina, in 1789, thus depicted the situation of things in that State, in a debate in that body.. Remember, there was then no protection to manufactures!

"The situation of South Carolina is melancholy: while the inhabitants are deeply in debt, the produce of the State is daily falling in price. Rice and indigo are become so low as to be considered by many not worthy of cultivation."

Mr. Colquhoun, an English writer, in his treatise on the wealth of Great Britain, thus speaks of its introduction into India. "Great advances were made in the cultivation of indigo in Bengal, to the extent of one million sterling, insomuch that it ultimately became one of the most valuable articles of importation from India. Its superiour quality recommended it to purchasers both at home and abroad, until the sales, which, in 1786, amounted to but 245,011 lbs., producing £61,583 sterling, advanced gradually, till, in 1810, they reached 5,570,024 lbs., producing £1,942,328; and, by more recent accounts, it had reached, according to McCulloch, in 1831, 6,996,063 lbs. What will be the situation of the South, if our manufactures shall be destroyed, and England shall eventually succeed in producing cotton in India, or elsewhere, as she has succeeded in indigo? And our Southern fellow-citizens may rest assured she will leave no stone unturned to accomplish this.

Further to show the causes which make up the difference between the results of free and slave labour, and preparatory to the examination of Mr. Walker's testimony, we think it best to state our views as to what is meant by profits on farming, in such of the grain-growing States as have no slaves.

Our view of what farmers call profit, as the per centage made upon the business of agriculture, is that sum laid by, by the farmer, after the maintenance of his family. We have never heard it supposed for a moment that a capitalist could buy a farm and stock it, hire an overseer and hands to work it, and make it a profitable concern. Farming is subjected to but few, if any, risks, and if we understand the views and prospects of an American farmer, he is well contented to maintain his family, the members of which are always fed from the farm, and are expected to earn their living. A particular state of things, and, now and then a good year, allow him to lay up some money, and he often becomes richer by the increased value of his land; but the very security in which he is placed against all revulsions of trade, or the failure of others in whose hands he may place his property—in fine, his independence, forbids the chance of his making much money; these are our views of the life and condition of the American farmer. What money he makes is generally by his superiour economy, and it must be obvious, that nothing can be more uncertain than testimony to prove what are the profits on farming. A New England farmer would grow rich, when a Maryland, Delaware, or Virginia farmer would starve. A rise in the value of his farm would nominally decrease his profits, so that his gain in this respect, would appear to diminish profits, although it would increase his wealth.

Producing a much larger quantity of the grain, and other farming productions, than can be consumed at home, Northern farmers, should their number be increased, must see their grain rot on their hands, as has heretofore been the case in some of our Western States, in anti-tariff times. Not so with cotton, rice, and tobacco; they will always command a price abroad. This is the real state of the case, divested of all the uncertainty which surrounds the matter, when mixed up with the currency and other merely collateral issues.

Protection, therefore, to free labour, is indispensable, or the free States cannot advance in wealth and civilization. Wealth is drawn from the industry of the people, and if they can do nothing but farm to raise a redundancy of an article for which there is no market, they must become degraded. Grain will not keep, like cotton, from year to year, and if there is no home market created for it by manufactures, every incentive to labour is at an end.

The question of the result of slave labour is simply the profit on the capital invested; how little the slave can be made to live upon, and how much his labour will produce, beyond the sum expended to sustain him in a working condition—this is the desideratum in slave labour.

How different is this from the case of the free labourer? The question in that case, is a question of *moral*, as well as physical existence—a question of improvement—a question of progress—of advancement. Every freeman has not only a wish, but a hope to better his condition, and promises himself something more than a mere physical existence. Hence, in this country, more particularly, there exists a necessity to protect his labour from the competition of the degraded labour of Europe, to prevent his being debased by reducing him down to the abject state of a mere physical existence, and scarcely *that*, which is the condition to which man is reduced in the old and thickly populated countries of Europe. From this he demands to be protected by duties which shall secure to him the possession of his own market. He is perfectly willing to meet the competition of his fellow-citizens, for they have all his aspirations, and are his equals; but he is not willing to have the market for labour in the United States flooded with the labour of degraded foreigners.

It is thus clear that the free States must continue to manufacture, and, if the degraded labour of Europe is permitted to come in, in the manner we have described, and with an inferiour article undersell the home production, the labour of the free States must fall to such a price as will reduce them nearly to a level with the European operative, or the American slave. The struggle, then, is as we have said, a struggle in favour of free labour. If there were a constant demand for grain, and it would keep from year to year, we might go on, and increase the quantity raised, but without a foreign market for it, a large portion of the free population would, to a certain extent, be again beggars, as they have been in anti-tariff seasons.

The great struggle in Europe is a struggle for mere existence, and so it will become in America if our labour is left unprotected. The 700,000 or 800,000 persons engaged in manufactures must be clothed and fed, and, if agriculture in the grain-growing States is not sufficiently profitable now, what will it be when these people are driven to it, and a large surplus capital is embarked in it? The only alternative, therefore, is for the Southern States to manufacture, which will lessen the amount of raw material produced, and give them the advantages resulting from the use of labour-saving machinery. Time will bring experience and an increased capital, and our whole country will then have a fair chance for the markets of the world.

In the estimate we have made of the free and mixed population, we were, of necessity, obliged to include all the slave States on the one side, and all the free on the other. We did this, in adherence to the fact, that such was the state of things as regards population. But we were fully aware, that in so doing, we were including among the number of the slave States, several to which our comparison does not apply, to the same extent, as it does to those remaining. Delaware, Maryland, Western Virginia, Louisiana, Kentucky, and Tennessee, and we see by Mr. Walker's evidence, latterly, Georgia, are alive to the advantages of the protective system, and that there, also, it is producing its invariable results, in advancing their best interests. We ardently hope this good example may be followed, for we go for the whole country—for the South as much as for the North—for the Middle and the West, as cordially as for the East; and our advice is to all, delay not to participate in the advantages of labour-saving machinery; they constitute the power of present progress, which will lag in arithmetical progression without them, but with them, will increase in a geometrical ratio; they are to industry, what railroads are to locomotion.

The whites of the South, as Mr. Gregg has shown, need the lessons of frugality and economy practised in the East. An attention to the details of manufactures will render this necessary, and, before many years, a new race of industrious whites will grow up among them, whose skill and labour will add countless millions to their productive capital, while it will greatly increase their comforts, improve their moral condition, and teach them political economy by its practical benefits, instead of forty-bale theories, abstract absurdities, or Walkers' reports.

The subject of the tariff is very simple when stripped of the many intricacies in which demagogues involve it. And why is it so? The answer is, because protection to our industry is the only basis of our prosperity. Many cannot understand how it benefits the currency. Now, to us, it is clearly because a paper currency must have a solid basis; paper, issued as money, must be the representative of value produced by labour, and not for speculative purposes. In most of the revulsions we have had in our currency, New England has been enabled to sustain herself, for this very reason—the value which she creates by her industry and economy, is a solid and substantial basis for the paper kept in circulation. But we have seen it quite different in many other sections where the currency has been inflated upon fictitious values. We notice this incidentally, because Mr. Walker has mixed up the currency and the tariff in his report. We shall not pursue the subject *now*, because the currency has many other relations, and is worthy of a separate consideration; indeed, it has been ably treated already in this work—the very first article which follows the introduction in No. 1, of the National Magazine, is on that subject, from the able pen of James De Peyster Ogden, Esq., of this city, a gentleman who has nothing whatever to do with manufactures, but who is a merchant devoted to mercantile pursuits; and, at the time the article was written, was President of the New York Chamber of Commerce. But this matter can be submitted to a very simple test—namely, which would be the best security for permanent issues—grain, or manufactured goods? The latter will keep without injury, and always have a foreign value; the former will not keep, and has no foreign value, except in times of great scarcity, in Continental Europe.

Perhaps Mr. Walker does not know, that, so far from our merchants being opposed to the tariff, they are more and more becoming its warmest friends, being fully convinced, that a successful commerce depends upon the power to consume—that this power comes from the application, in the best manner, of the industry of the country—that this cannot be reached without a multiplicity of pursuits, among which, the only safe resort in the grain-growing States is manufactures, which cannot be sustained without protection.

Many honest inquirers after the truth, in the matter of the tariff, cannot understand how it can be that manufactures can need protection, while we can export, and place them, and sell them to advantage along-side the British, in foreign countries; but truth is always simple and plain, and this is as much so as any other. It arises from a combination of causes; the principal one, however, being the superiour staple of which our coarse cotton goods are made—the additional weight from their being made heavier and better. It is a fact, that articles of all kinds manufactured in this country, are more substantial than those made in Manchester, Birmingham, and Sheffield, which are the places from which we receive our cottons and hardware. Our cottons, similar in fabric and quality, are heavier, have less starch in them, and, as we have said, are made of a much better staple. There is an inferiour kind of cotton which the English receive from Bombay and Surat, which is much shorter in its staple, and otherwise of less value than our upland cotton, and this enters largely into the coarse cotton fabrics of Great Britain. The writer of this article is familiar with this cotton, it being the kind transported from Bengal and Surat to China. Now, these facts show why our goods are preferred to the British in the foreign markets, and, strange to say, but no less true, this forms an additional reason, beyond those we have already stated, why we need protection from them in our home market. This can be accounted for upon no other principle than that, as nations grow older, they estimate things less by appearance than by intrinsic value. In China, every article is most thoroughly examined; cottons are first weighed, as they come from the bale, the starch, or sizing, is then washed out, when they are weighed again, to ascertain the quantity of starch contained in their dressing; threads are taken out, and the staple of the cotton of which they are made is examined; in fine, every article, of whatever nature or kind, which goes to the Canton market, is most thoroughly examined by parties well skilled in their nature—nothing escapes the vigilant eye of the people of that country. The writer has frequently seen one of the persons called Shroffs, or Shroffmen, who count the new dollars when they are first paid out, take twenty between his thumb and little finger, and, without looking at them, by the mere sound, call out *bad*, and, as certainly as this indication was given, there was a counterfeit dollar among them. In South America, the goods sold are conveyed far into the interiour on the backs of mules. Doubtless this causes strict investigation, and those of the best staple and fabric are there preferred.

In England, the distinction is well known between Sheffield and Birmingham ware, and a similar article made in London; indeed, the latter may be easily known anywhere, for it is vastly superiour in every way. The London article seldom or never comes to the United States, for the very reason that our own are equally good, at a less price.

We do not pretend to account for it, but it is true, that in new countries, what is called *cheapness* in price, governs much more than in those which are older; and the Americans have the character all over the world, where they are well known, of being a people fond of show. Something of this may be attributed to prejudice. Thirty or forty years since, almost all business signs in our large cities had the fact stated, that the respective mechanics were from London, or from Paris; we are glad to know that this is now done away for the most part.

But it is time now to proceed to some examination of a part of Mr. Walker's report—state his allegations, and see how his evidence sustains them.

We have, in a preceding number, given it as our opinion that his principle of regulating and fixing a duty, that shall give the greatest possible amount of revenue, is impracticable. To this opinion we still adhere. He may, indeed, fix a rate which he may think will accomplish this, but well assured we are that he will fail.

The reduction to his proposed average of 20 per cent. of all duties, will so break up the prosperity of the whole Union, as well the South, as the North, that the first or second year after it is accomplished our imports will fall off to such an extent as wholly to disappoint him. A new and higher tariff will then be rendered necessary. What will be required, we pretend not to say. But nothing prosperous, nothing stable can be calculated upon, so long as we are without protection to defend us from the paralyzing effect of the introduction of the proceeds of the depressed and degraded labour of Europe.

The first allegation made against the present tariff, is, that it discriminates in favour of manufactures and against agriculture.

Wool, costing not exceeding 7 cents per lb., pays 5 per cent. Over that price, 3 cents per lb. and 30 per cent. Wheat pays 25 cents per bushel. Flour, 70 cents per 112 lbs. Pork, 2 cents per lb. Beef, 2 cents per lb. Barley, 20 per cent. Sugar, 2½ cents per lb. Cotton, 3 cents per lb.

What is the evidence on this subject produced by the answer to his sixth and seventh questions of Circular No. 2? which are in these words: 6th. What has been the annual average of these agricultural productions during the same periods respectively, (ten years preceding 1842 and since the passage of the tariff,) and what the average annual income per hand or labourer, deducting all expenses during the same periods respectively? 7th. How far have prices and profits, during the periods referred to, been effected by the operation of the tariff laws, and how far by the state of the currency? The first answer to these queries, is from Mr. Payne, of Boston: "A greater profit has been derived from farming in this State for the last five years than for many years before." He assigns as reasons the soundness of the currency, and the full employment in handicraft industry. The Hon. Isaac Winslow, of Boston, says, "In 1842, prices were depressed by the currency; since 1842, prices higher." Sidney Miner, of Connecticut, says, "Little or no difference in prices; does not think there is any effect on the growers of the staples, or the State at large. Prices have not been materially affected by the tariff." Joseph Kemp, of Hollidaysburg, Penn., says, "The tariff laws have always affected agriculture immediately in the vicinity of manufacturing establishments favourably, by furnishing a market for their productions. It affects those at a distance, also, by leaving to them the city or foreign market. The condition of the currency has more to do with prices and profits than the tariff." C. E. Wethered, of Baltimore, says, "Prices of agricultural produce depend upon demand and supply. The operation of the tariff has given a stability to currency which would not exist without it. Prices and profits have been more uniform." T. W. Fraser, of South Carolina, says, "I am not aware that there has been any great difference within the time stated, in my annual profit." R. F. W. Alston, of Waoccanaw Beach, South Carolina, says, "From 1832 to 1842, the average annual price of rice was about $3 per cwt. In 1842, '43, $2 56; in 1843, '44, $2 63; in 1844, '45, $3. The annual average income per hand or labourer, was, during the first term of ten years, about $130; in 1842, '43, $83; in 1843, '44, $96 71;

in 1844, '45, $128." Edward Webb, of Anderson Court-House, South Carolina, says, "The tariff laws have had but little effect on prices and profits; they have been mainly affected by production and consumption, and the state of the currency." P. A. Roost, of Destreham Place, Louisiana, answers these two questions at great length. We extract what he says of facts only. "Up to the day of the repeal of the Compromise Act, the tendency of the price of cotton was downwards. When the operation of the tariff of 1842 began to be felt, that tendency changed, and in two years cotton has risen 25 or 30 per cent." Mr. Roost states further, as follows: "In 1825, I travelled in different parts of Ohio. The first question asked me when I stopped at a tavern was, whether I had any objection to having my horse fed on wheat; the stage contractors preferred oats. Corn was better for fattening cattle and hogs, and their only market for wheat was to feed it in this way to chance travellers. Corn was then retailing at 12½ cents per bushel; wheat could not be sold at any price. Since that time the canal has been opened through these districts. Large manufactories have been put into operation, and both canals and manufactures have had the same effect; they have given to the farmer a regular market for his wheat, at fair prices. Formerly the farmer who had 200 bushels of wheat to sell did not get $20 for it; now he receives from $100 to $120 for the same quantity."

Edmund J. Forstall, of New Orleans, says, in answer to No. 7, namely, how far prices during the periods referred to have been affected by the tariff and how far by the state of currency? "To that extent that the Federal government itself was upon the verge of bankruptcy on the termination of the Compromise bill. That it sent a Commissioner to Europe to negotiate a pitiful loan of five millions, who had to return without finding a single taker. That the derangement of our currency and the fiscal concerns of the Federal Government destroyed confidence between man and man; and, for the time being, carried perturbation and ruin to almost every branch of our industry throughout the land; but that such of our products as are chiefly sold for export, as cotton and tobacco, being always paid for in sterling, francs, or dollars, did not suffer any thing like the depreciation sustained by all interests, strictly local."

P. A. Champomier, of New Orleans, says: "To the benign influence of the tariff, we owe our emancipation from foreign dependence, which is freedom. That as a revenue is to be arranged, so as to carry on our Government, the general welfare of the Union requires that such revenue should be so arranged as to afford encouragement to our manufactures and agriculture, that our labour may not be debased by foreign labour. That, in fine, there is not a branch of industry in our country which is not directly or indirectly benefited by a tariff judiciously laid; and by far the greatest portion of such benefit is derived by our own operatives and labourers."

A. Beatty, of Prospect Hill, Kentucky, answers No. 7 thus: "Tariff laws, by encouraging manufactures, and thus creating a home market for agricultural products, in aid of the foreign market, have undoubtedly a favourable effect upon such products. A stable and well-regulated currency has, also, a favourable influence, by producing steadiness and fair prices in the market."

Thomas K. Porter, of Paris, Tennessee, says: "The nett income of agricultural labour per hand is *now* better than it was previous to 1842;

for while the staples maintain nearly the old price, the expenses are vastly diminished by the great reduction in price of all manufactured goods, and of almost every article the farmer and planter has to buy. The average price of corn has been about the same for both periods."

Mr. Hensdell, of Kalamazoo, Michigan, says: "Prices and profits have been more affected by the state of the currency, than by the tariff laws."

Mr. Walker's second allegation is, It (the present tariff) discriminates in favour of the manufacturer, and against the mechanic, by many higher duties upon the manufacture, than upon the article made out of it by the mechanic.

We dare not trust ourselves to place on record what we think of this assertion. We are, indeed, too indignant at such barefaced misrepresentation; but we must keep our temper, and prove its utter fallacy. The following are the duties on sundry mechanical pursuits:

	Duty.
Hats or caps of fur or leather,	35 per cent.
Shoes of leather, men's, per pair,	30 cents.
do. do. women's, do.	40 cents.
Boots and bootees for men, per pair,	$1 25 cents.
Ready-made clothing,	50 per cent.
Books, per lb., at least,	40 average.
Cabinet work,	30 per cent.
Tinners' ware,	30 "
Brushes,	30 "
Saddles,	30 "
Bridles,	35 "
Bellows,	35 "
Jewellery,	25 "
Japanned Ware,	30 "
Cutlery,	30 "
Types,	25 "

Our mechanics, of all kinds, are abundantly protected; the duties, as it will be seen above, are nearly all above 30 per cent., which is a full protection to them, because they have the whole market to themselves. It matters not how high, or how low the duty is, when that effect is produced.

The next charge against the present tariff, is, that it discriminates in favour of the manufacturer, and against the merchant, by injurious restrictions upon trade and commerce, and against the ship-building and navigating interest, by heavy duties on almost every article used in building or navigating vessels.

Before we examine the testimony on this subject, we have a few words to say about the merchant and the shipping interest: premising, that we consider it a portion of American industry highly important to our welfare and progress, and, as such, entitled to its share of protection. We would express our wonder and astonishment, if any obliquity from Mr. Walker could astonish us, that he should have brought forth such an assertion, or, in any way, undertaken to show that the merchant, and those concerned in the building, owning, or equipping of ships, have any cause to complain of the protective system; for the records of American legislation bear the most ample testimony to the manner in which the shipping interest, of all others, has been the most highly protected.

The second act passed by the first Congress, contained clauses which secured to our ships the China trade.

Bohea tea paid in American vessels,	9 cents—foreign,	15
Souchong, and other black teas,	10 cents— "	22
Hyson,	20 cents— "	45
All others,	12 cents— "	27

We notice this with no unfriendly feeling to our commerce—far from it, for the merchant is as much entitled to the protection of the government, and we claim him, and his jolly tars, our nation's best defence, as free labourers, requiring the protection of the government, and justly entitled to it, and we regret the manner in which our miscalled reciprocity treaties have sacrificed his interests, as shown in the number of this work for January, commencing at page 719, where it is made most clear by the Hon. James Tallmadge, President of the American Institute. Mr. Walker, therefore, gains no strength by bringing forward the mercantile interest as opposed to protection; no part of the industry of the country has experienced more of it, and none to the greater advantage of one of our most valuable pursuits. But how do Mr. Walker's witnesses answer this question, which is in the following words, being question 15, of Circular No. 2.

"Is your State now, or have its citizens at any former period, been engaged in ship-building, or that of navigation, and to what extent? What is the present condition of those interests—how have they been affected by the tariff laws, and what is the effect of the present duties upon them?"

John W. Treadwell, of Boston, answers: "A portion of our citizens have always been in the business of ship-building and navigation, to the extent in ship-building of about one million and a half of dollars per annum. The effect of the tariff laws is salutary upon these, as well as all the other interests of the country, inasmuch as our own labour is employed, instead of foreign labour, in the production of the manufactures consumed in the country. This employment of labourers, and the consumption of the domestic raw material, is most beneficial to the agricultural interest; it enables the labourer to consume more of its products, as well as the products of the manufacturing establishments, and this universal ability to consume, is the foundation of the prosperity which the country has enjoyed since the passage of the tariff act of 1842, and, on the other hand, the inability to consume which marked the three years immediately preceding that act, (the last three years of the disastrous Compromise Act,) was the main cause of the prostration of business, and the consequent poverty and distress of that period.

A portion of our navigation finds profitable employment in the purchase in foreign countries of the raw material used in our manufactures, and the transportation and sale of our manufactures abroad, which are becoming every succeeding year more and more in demand, and compete successfully with similar articles manufactured in Europe."

Edward Bartlett, of Newburyport, answers: "Largely in ship-building. Heretofore the duties on some articles were heavy; now, little affected by reason of supplies of iron being our own products, and, also, competition." In answer to question 16 of Circular No. 2, Mr. Bartlett says: "The tariff has benefited commerce ten per cent on value of imports."

William Nichols, Collector of Newburyport, says, in answer to question 15: "The tabular statements annually published by the Department will show the amount of the ship-building in Massachusetts. The general condition of those branches of business has not been better for many years than during the last three. The cotton and tobacco carrying trade alone has been depressed, and their profits reduced to an exceedingly low figure, by a great influx of shipping belonging to England and the Hanse Towns. The shipping employed by the Hanse Towns, owing to the cheapness with which they are sailed and constructed, and to the numerous branches of German commercial houses from Hamburg and Bremen, established in the United States, possess an advantage in some respects over our own shipping. The English, also, from their vast colonial trade and their navigation laws, added to the fact that their immense timber fleet is shut out from almost all its timber trade during the busy season, when the great staples of the United States are pressing on the market, thus enabling them to make two timber freights a year, and then, instead of hauling up during the winter, coming over to the United States and making one or two freights, renders it not only a formidable rival, but gives a manifest advantage over the shipping of the United States, which is excluded from this great colonial trade."

Robert Neilson and George W. Burke, Inspectors of the Customs, Baltimore, answer: "Our citizens have been, and still are, extensively engaged in ship-building and navigation. The present condition of these interests is progressive and prosperous."

C. E. Wethered, of Baltimore, answers: "Is extensively engaged in ship-building. Not so much as before the *West India treaty.* That treaty injured the shipping interest more than every thing else. Not affected by the tariff."

Mr. Walker's fourth allegation is, that it (the tariff) discriminates in favour of manufactures and against exports, which are as truly the product of American industry as manufactures.

No one of Mr. Walker's queries particularly applies to this allegation; nor could such queries be of much value. The exports are so dependant upon the demand abroad for our staples, and many other causes, that this allegation is of little consequence to the great mass of the citizens of those States not producing tobacco, rice, and cotton; for while the exports of the planting States amount to about 80 per cent. of the whole, in these three articles of our exports, the whole of the exports of the free States scarcely ever exceed 20 per cent. of the amount exported. These free States have a population, as we have shown, of 9,556,915 whites, and export less than 20 per cent. on an average; while the planting States have but a population of 4,632,640 whites, and they export 80 per cent. of the amount of the annual exports of the United States. This is the only fair way to estimate our exports, for as the 2,500,000 slaves are property, or capital, they certainly are not entitled to be considered population, when estimating our exports.

Now, we should think Mr. Walker would have avoided saying much about our exports, for, tariff or no tariff, the free States have very little participation in them. And it is precisely for this reason, we think our Government bound to furnish us a home market for our produce. The idea that the tariff diminishes exports, will prove, if examined, an absurdity; unless Mr. Walker means that we do not export the 400,000 bales of cotton which he admits we manufacture. If this is his meaning, it is freely admitted; and we think if 400,000 more, could be so kept from exportation, it would be well for the cotton-growing States.

We come now to the last allegation made, namely, that the tariff discriminates in favour of the rich, and against the poor.

This is a purely gratuitous assertion, and is put forth for political effect, without the slightest foundation.

Literally speaking, the poor are, of all others, the most benefited by the tariff. They have very little to do with the consumption of foreign goods, except of the coarser kinds, and of tea, coffee, and salt; their clothing is, throughout the country, generally made of household manufactures, except their shirts and summer clothing; and a good shirt of domestic cotton can now be purchased for less than one dollar. Hats, boots, and shoes, are never imported; and the cotton cloth for summer wear, on which the duty is 7½ cents per yard, sells for six and a half. We think it would puzzle even Mr. Walker to deduct 7½ cents from six and a half, even to show how much the tariff taxes the poor man's shirts. Tea and coffee are admitted free; salt is as low as ever it was, when it paid the lightest duty; and the amount consumed by each individual is so small that the difference between eight cents and no duty, does not amount in the whole year to more than six cents; so that were the duty taken off it would produce but a very slight relief; for the poor man would have to pay, probably, the same price. But if not—if his salt were to fall the whole eight cents in price, he could not save more than six cents per annum. See following statement:

TAX ON SALT

Domestic and Foreign Salt, as estimated, in 1840.

Domestic Salt,	6,179,174
Imported,	6,061,608
Consumption of Salt in 1840,	12,240,782

Population per census of 1840, 17,069,453. Consumption of salt for each person, about three-quarters of one bushel; duty, eight cents per bushel; saving, per annum, to each person in the United States, suppose salt to remain at the same price in place of production and no duty charged, six cents!!!

We have thus examined this mighty report, which, no doubt, is considered by its author a great and convincing document. How far we have sustained our position, that a government is bound to protect its industry; and how far we have exposed the fallacy of Mr. Walker's reasoning, is not for us to say.

We have no space for such a mass of testimony as accompanies the report; but our readers need not regret it, for the questions are all leading questions, intended to elicit opinions; and, of course, these vary according as the person answering is in favour or opposed to the protective policy. And we wish it understood, that we have confined ourselves to such answers of respectable witnesses as appeared most likely by facts to overturn the allegations made by Mr. Walker, as we have quoted them. Some witnesses, of course, gave contrary replies; but Mr. Walker is a lawyer, and he will hardly undertake to discredit his own witnesses.

We submit our views upon the report and testimony to our readers, with the remark, that after as thorough an examination as the delay in publishing the report would permit, we see nothing in it against the protective system, but the mere opinions of anti-tariff men.

We shall have occasion to revert to this document again, for it contains much matter for examination in detail, and at our leisure, besides many useful tables which we shall publish, and to which, in the course of our labours, we shall have to refer.

The questions in both circulars betray the most utter ignorance of the nature of agriculture, commerce, and manufactures, by instituting comparisons of prices at different periods of time, without any regard to the different circumstances which governed them. Thus, the questions of both circulars are leading ones, evidently designed to give political partisans the opportunity to sustain the party who had previously issued their mandate to the faithful. A simple question, therefore, of industry or idleness is involved in those of party, of currency, of supply and demand, with all other incidentals, for the purpose of mystifying it and surrounding it with obstacles, which would obscure it. But even this, as we have shown by the answers we have selected, did not effect the designed purpose. The truth cannot be concealed. The sun will shine and give its light, though millions should shut their eyes to its glorious effulgence.

The absurdity of such queries is rendered obvious by the fact that the contractions and expansions of the currency were so great during the ten years previous to the passage of the tariff act of 1842, that real estate, which is no otherwise effected by a tariff than as the general prosperity is advanced or retarded by its operation, rose and fell more than one-half in value.

Every one, at all acquainted with the nature of trade, knows that the prices of all its commodities are more governed by demand and supply, and by the state of the currency, than by any enhancement or diminution of the duties, which only affects prices by increasing or diminishing the power to consume. This is easily shown by the simplest examination of the subject. Take an article not produced in the United States, coffee for instance, on which the duty has varied from five cents per pound to being entirely free of duty; and it has commanded as high a price when free as when it paid five cents duty; and all contractions and expansions of the currency have affected coffee as they have affected all other articles, under the same state of demand and supply. We see, therefore, that many of the witnesses state this in their answers, by saying that prices have been more governed by the state of the currency than by the tariff.

Edmund J. Forstall, of New Orleans, one of Mr. Walker's witnesses, quotes from Niles's Register, volume 1st, page 544, the duties and corresponding prices of coffee, thus:

1811,	Coffee duty,	5 cents.	Current price in the United States,	16 cents.
1813,	....	5 "	" "	22 "
1820–1822,	....	5 "	" "	27 "
1829–1830,	....	5 "	" "	12½ "
1831,	....	2 "	" "	12½ "
1832,	....	1 "	" "	13 "
1833,	....	Free of duty.	" "	13 "

At page 761 of the report, the following statement is made, to show how completely demand and supply regulate prices:

Average prices of Cuba Muscovado Sugars, during a period of ten years, taken from Havana prices current.

					Importation into United States.
1830,....	6 to 8	reals per aroba......	3 a 4	cents per lb.......	4,636,342
1831,....	5 to 6	" "	2½ a 3	" "	4,910,877
1832,....	6½ to 7½	" "	2¾ a 3¼	" "	2,933,688
1833,....	4¾ to 6	" "	2¾ a 3	" "	4,755,856
1834,....	5¾ to 7½	" "	2⅞ a 3¼	" "	5,538,425
1835,....	8 to 9¼	" "	4 a 4⅝	" "	6,806,625
1836,...	12½ to 14	" "	6½ a 7!!	" "	12,514,718
1837,....	5 to 8	" "	2¼ a 4	" "	7,203,206
1838,....	7 to 8½	" "	3¼ a 4½	" "	7,586,825
1839,....	6½ to 8	" "	3¼ a 4	" "	6,970,240

McCulloch, in his Commercial Dictionary, estimates the total product of sugar annually to be 508,000 tons, say 1,143,000,000 lbs. The average product of Louisiana is 70,000 hhds. or 70,000,000 of pounds, or a fraction under 6 1-5th of the whole product. Yet, trifling as this appears to be, an early winter, at the close of 1835, having reduced the crop of Louisiana to 25,000 hhds., prices in 1836 immediately advanced from 5 to 6 cents, the usual price in New Orleans, to 11 cents, and in Cuba, where the crop had been a large one, from 4 and 4⅝ to 6½ and 7 cents!!! And, as above shown, the importation of sugars for that year into the United States amounts to 12,514,718 lbs; 5,708,093 more than any previous year, for which the people had to pay specie. For the extra import from the West Indies, could not have created there, an extra demand for our provisions; and provisions are very nearly the only articles taken in exchange for the coffee and sugar we thence import.

The season from 1836 to 1837, was favourable to Louisiana. An average crop was produced, and again prices receded to 5 a 6 cents in New Orleans, and in Cuba to 3½ a 4 cents, and our imports from foreign countries fell short of the previous year $5,311,512, the difference being supplied by our labour.

What had the tariff to do with these fluctuations? Nothing whatever. They were in consequence of the difference of relation between demand and supply. Just such fluctuations take place in other manufactures. Demand and supply, and the state of the currency, are the great regulators of prices, and so Mr. Walker will find it.

Demand is regulated by several causes; a very important one of which is the power to consume. Where then will be Mr. Walker's revenue, when he has thrown a million of manufacturers out of employment, and brought the country to ruin by the floods of foreign labour which low duties will at first introduce throughout the Union.

A much more effectual mode of ascertaining the effect of duties, is to take the general state of the prosperity of the country; for, after all, it is this which is the desirable consummation, without any regard to prices. When is the labourer, (by which we presume is meant *the poor man*, for whom the Secretary would fain persuade us he has so much sympathy,) when is he best situated, as regards his physical and moral condition? It is clearly shown that the life and activity which is given to industry of every kind, when under the protective system, while it adds greatly to our wealth by the value of our raw materials of coal, of iron, of wool, and we shall insist, also, of cotton, adds in the same manner to the relative value of labour; for it cannot be doubted that the employment of seven or eight hundred thousand persons in manufactures, while it vastly increases the market for agricultural productions, at the same time increases the comforts of the working classes. It makes and sustains railroads and canals, improves water privileges, supports mining, builds furnaces and forges, cotton and woollen mills, gives employment to steamboats, and in fine opens to our population every source of creating value, to say nothing of the increase of wealth promoted by the employment of labour-saving machinery. We are well aware that these things are so obvious that the advocates of the anti-protective system dare not deny them; and that they shelter themselves, as does Mr. Walker, by the assertion that they are not unfriendly to manufactures. They are only unwilling to force them, as they say, by high duties. Now, can any thing be more destructive to our advancement than this reasoning, if reasoning it can be called. The experience and practice of all nations and all times, prove that there is no other way to introduce the skill that is necessary successfully to prosecute manufactures, than thus to protect them; and that their subsequent benefit repays a thousand fold all sacrifices that are made. All nations where they flourish have so acted, and are at this moment continuing so to act; and in the face of all precedent and experience, we are told we must not do so; and the only thing that is said against it, is, that it is taxing the many for the benefit of the few; as if, in this free country, where laws are made by the people themselves, through their representatives, such a policy could have been so long practiced, had it produced this effect. From whence comes this cry? Are the mass of the free population suffering, and does the cry come from them? Where are their memorials to Congress for relief? The truth is, no such thing exists. There never was a period when the physical and moral condition of the whole people was better than when they have been experiencing, as at present, the benign influences of the protective system—the result of which is industry.

Go to New England, and in her beautiful manufacturing villages, inquire how the working class live, and what is their condition. Inquire in the country around, and you will hear of no taxation. In most of these villages there are hundreds of neat dwellings, (more or less, according to its size,) in which live the mechanics who have families in a state of comfort and happiness, unknown in the South where there are no manufactures. Examine the situation of the Savings Banks of Massachusetts, and of other sections, and compare their condition with those of the South. We annex a statement of the former, comparing October, 1841 and 1842, with November, 1845, to which we ask attention, and when given, let any one then say the tariff policy does not increasingly protect labour.

SAVINGS BANKS IN MASSACHUSETTS,

Compiled from authentic documents in the office of the Secretary of the Commonwealth of Massachusetts.

BANKS.	OCTOBER, 1841.	
	No. of Depositors.	Amount.
Andover,	255	$41,333 73
Barnstable,	342	58,775 00
Boston,	16,405	2,696,586 00
Cambridge,	308	33,882 23
Canton,	167	19,269 05
Am't carried forward,	17,477	$2,849,846 01

BANKS.	OCTOBER, 1841. No. of Depo'itors.	OCTOBER, 1841. Amount.
Am't bro't forward,	17,477	$2,849,846 01
Dedham,	832	134,970 94
Fairhaven,	135	25,631 78
Fall River,	1,332	288,349 60
Franklin,	150	18,239 62
Haverhill,	594	73,808 34
Hingham,	723	126,369 48
Lowell,	2,699	448,190 94
Lynn,	443	43,527 84
Middlesex,	521	78,252 96
Nantucket,	227	44,458 28
New Bedford,	1,386	262,220 67
Newburyport,	2,215	381,045 73
Newton,	83	3,797 37
Plymouth,	1,349	215,970 95
Roxbury,	641	83,597 32
Salem,	3,571	603,972 23
Salisbury and Amesbury,	404	49,919 30
Scituate,	474	47,628 42
Springfield,	273	47,567 46
Warren, in Charlestown,	1,116	167,342 33
Weymouth and Braintree,	185	19,810 02
Worcester County,	3,002	518,027 24
Total,	39,832	$6,485,544 82

BANKS.	OCTOBER, 1842. No. of Depo'itors.	OCTOBER, 1842. Amount.	NOVEMBER, 1845. No. of Depo'itors.	NOVEMBER, 1845. Amount.
Andover,	282	$47,662 62	456	$97,140 92
Barnstable,	385	72,626 00	680	143,486 39
Boston,	16,549	2,634,864 30	19,007	3,023,742 03
Cambridge,	315	38,685 60	483	65,890 12
Dedham,	874	140,796 57	1,256	218,166 69
Fairhaven,	153	25,352 91	189	45,144 94
Fall River,	1,525	332,665 47	2,128	510,807 60
Franklin,	162	17,832 27	345	54,244 53
Haverhill,	643	82,377 24	1,047	178,681 40
Hingham,	712	132,998 45	990	198,814 83
Lowell,	2,768	478,375 00	4,423	730,890 13
Lynn,	447	41,203 44	570	60,016 79
Middlesex, in Concord,	565	88,989 66	914	175,476 09
Nantucket,	271	44,350 40	493	111,358 09
Northampton,	just	opened.	71	7,341 69
New Bedford,	1,427	270,466 94	2,001	430,765 04
Newburyport,	2,266	363,576 54	2,663	439,034 82
Newton,	91	4,840 05	110	7,697 58
Plymouth,	1,406	222,132 58	1,807	297,336 40
Roxbury,	515	56,719 10	468	69,369 47
Salem,	3,691	631,539 43	4,895	898,602 76
Salisbury and Amesbury,	444	55,203 79	559	67,544 11
Scituate,	517	47,506 43	811	83,962 61
Springfield,	299	51,269 77	605	104,843 28
Warren, in Charlestown,	1,118	165,432 77	1,275	168,160 94
Weymouth and Braintree,	194	21,604 67	313	49,643 34
Worcester County,	3,321	587,379 65	5,385	919,012 33
Lancaster, opened June 2, 1845,	....	....	38	4,058 00
Quincy, opened May 17, 1845,	....	....	118	12,248 00
Total,	40,940	$6,666,451 65	54,100	$9,193,980 92

Let it be borne in remembrance that our statistics are taken from the census of 1840, *when there was little if any protection beyond that of what Mr. Walker is pleased to call a revenue tariff; and at a time when capital was receiving no remuneration—for the Compromise Act had then reduced the duties down so low, that the manufacturers were making no profits. The advantages to the country, therefore, of fifty per cent. in free labour, over and beyond the mixed labour of the slave States, was all distributed among the labourers engaged in the various pursuits in which the free States were employed.*

A reference to the tables, showing the state of the Safety Fund Banks in Massachusetts, will show this in the clearest possible light, and we again call particular attention to them.

In 1841 and 1842, the depositors and the deposits were pretty much the same; but, in 1845, when the present tariff had produced its beneficial effects, the depositors had increased upwards of 13,000 in number, and the deposits nearly three millions of dollars!

This we consider very important, as it entirely destroys the argument that protection does not benefit the labourer. Had such a state of things continued one year longer than it did, the manufacturers would have been obliged to close their works, and it can easily be seen what would have been the situation of the country had not the tariff act of 1842 *been passed; and precisely such an effect will be produced should Mr. Walker's plan of a revenue tariff be successful.*

The proofs of the distress of the labouring classes in anti-tariff years, have been abundantly produced, and its cause has been as frequently shown. There was a period in this city when our mechanics were up in arms about degraded labour. When it came from the State Prison at Sing Sing, then the cry was, "No State Prison monopoly;" then the degraded labour, and its interference with honest, intelligent labour, to its great injury, was so near home, that the cry was kept up, till all interference by the degraded labour of the prisoners employed in the mechanic arts was put an end to. And yet what difference can it make to the mechanic, whether his labour is paralysed by the convicts of Sing Sing, or the paupers of Europe?

In bidding adieu to Mr. Walker and his report for the present, we are desirous to record an opinion we entertain, for future examination, and it is this: If party discipline shall accomplish the overthrow of the protective duties, the country will not be long in feeling its baneful and pernicious effects. But it will not ultimately destroy American manufactures. The free States will never consent to have their labour degraded. They *will* insist upon its protection; and Mr. Walker and those who act with him will be permitted to retire to private life, and never again will he be allowed to hold the office which he will have used to the destruction of the best interests of his country.

MANUFACTURE OF GLASS IN THE UNITED STATES.

Returns* of the amount of various articles used in the manufacture of Flint Glass, in the nineteen furnaces now in operation:

1,200,000	bush American Bituminous Coal,	3,616,000	lbs. of Missouri Lead,
50,000	" of Foreign "	2,875,000	lbs. of Pearl Ash,
4,500	tons of Anthracite Coal,	272,000	lbs. of Saltpetre,
8,666	cords of Wood,	1,700	tons of Straw,
2,800	bbls. of Rosin,	475,000	Staves,
3,555	tons of Silex or fine Sand,	270,000	Hoops,
956	" of Fire Clay,	1,400,000	Boards,
970	" of Iron,	6,500	lbs. of Manganese,
20,400	lbs. of Borax,	22,500	lbs. of Arsenic.

$200,000 worth Brass, Britannia, and Tin Ware.

It is computed that to bring these materials to the various factories, the occasional use of 57,745 tons, is equal to the constant employment of 5,393 tons coastwise, lake, and river shipping. The manufactured goods require nearly as much more to transport them to market, making a total of about 10,000 tons coastwise, lake, and river shipping, constantly employed in this business.

A list of prices is attached, of leading articles of flint glass, taken from factory books, before and after the tariff of 1842. They give a fair and impartial average of prices generally, at the periods named. Standard articles have been selected, as those less affected by change of fashion, or by substitution in use of other articles.

	Before present Tariff.	In 1845.
No. 2 Lamps,	$3 00 per dozen.	$2 50 per dozen.
3 do.	2 00 "	1 50 "
4 do.	1 75 "	1 25 "
5 oz. Tumblers,	56¼ "	50 "
4 " do.	62½ "	56 "
Salts, various kinds,	75 "	50 "
Cut Mirror Dishes,	25 per inch.	12½ per inch.
Fluted Lanterns,	7 50 per dozen.	5 50 per dozen.
Pressed half-pint 9 oz. Tumblers	1 50 "	1 00 "
do. 12 oz. "	2 25 "	1 50 "
do. pint,	2 50 "	2 00 "
Cut Lamps,	2 75 "	2 00 "
Lamp Glasses,	2 25 "	1 50 "
do. "	1 75 "	1 25 "
Castor Bottles,	84 "	67 "
Cap Plates,	30 "	25 "
Octagon Dishes, 6 inch,	1 75 "	1 50 "
do. 7 "	2 75 "	2 25 "
do. 8 "	4 50 "	3 50 "
do. 9 "	6 50 "	5 50 "
do. 10 "	10 50 "	7 50 "
Bar Decanters,	6 00 "	5 00 "

As regards wages, the amount given is paid to the same persons at four different periods, in the three different departments of glass-making. The wages of no two persons are exactly the same, as men in glass-works earn more or less, according to their relative skill. However, the persons taken from each department give a fair average.

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* This estimate has been prepared from actual returns, received from seventeen factories. The remaining two have been estimated for.

	January, 1840.	January, 1842.	January, 1844.	Jan., 1846.
Gaffer No. 3, per week,.....	$15 00	(short work) $10 00	$16 50	$17 25
Seivitor No. 3, per week,...	8 50	8 00	9 60	11 00
Footmaker No. 3, per week,	7 00	6 50	9 00	9 50

In 1840, and until the tariff of 1842 went into operation, the men were out of work at least one-fourth of their time. Up to 1843, labourers in the yard only received 83 cents per day; now they have $1 00, and all have constant employment.

In 1832, there were 17 furnaces in operation. As the duty on foreign glass was reduced, the fires were put out, so that in 1842, there were but three or four at work, and these not fully employed.

When facts such as these, applicable to one branch of American industry, are known as showing the effect of a high tariff upon prices and upon wages, the reason why the first should fall and the other rise, is manifest enough to those who know the difference between quick sales, with prompt payment, the legitimate effect of protection, and dull sales, large stocks, and bad debts, the necessary result of heavy importations consequent upon low duties.

THE REVENUE STANDARD.

As we consider the question of the tariff, and what may be the action of the present Congress upon it, as, beyond all doubt, emphatically *the* question of the deepest import that can now occupy the public mind, we think our pages cannot, at this time, be better appropriated than in shedding all the light we can upon every operation of our present revenue system. It is, therefore, with the most unfeigned pleasure, we place upon record an article which appeared on that subject in the National Intelligencer of August last, under the anonymous signature of "Experience," very justly adopted by the Hon. Nathan Appleton, whose name is enough to insure to us a full justification for our carrying out the strong desire we have, that such "Experience" may be preserved in a form that will facilitate a more desirable reference to it than a daily journal can impart.

"Experience," as we have elsewhere said, was, in days gone by, thought to be one of the safest teachers; and we have no doubt it will again ere long be so felt, let the action by Congress upon the tariff be what it may. If the counsels of "Experience" are to have any salutary weight, the country will be permitted to go on in its present unexampled career of success. If, on the contrary, the "hocus pocus' of party, or any other motive, shall procure a majority in Congress to apply the axe to the root of the tree producing such valuable fruits, and its fall shall, *as it inevitably will*, forever crush those who have been instrumental in its overthrow—then will Messrs. Walker & Co. learn, when it will be too late, that the time has gone by when the people of the United States can be made to believe that sophistry is superiour to fact, or new-fangled experiments to be preferred to long-tried and well-tested "experience."

With these few words of caution, which we offer in all sincerity, to those whom they may in anywise concern, we place on record the following clear and convincing views of the benign influence of the present tariff, by the Hon. Nathan Appleton:

We have seen it announced under the hand of Mr. Secretary Walker, that "the tariff must be reduced to the revenue standard," and that his chief occupation, at present, is with the details of this measure. It becomes important then, to know what is to be understood by the expression, "*revenue standard*," which is about as definite as that of "*a judicious tariff*."

The process of reduction would imply that the present tariff produces too much revenue, but it is difficult to believe that the Secretary is much troubled on this score. The amount of nett revenue from customs for the year ending 30th June, 1844, was twenty-six millions one hundred and eighty-three thousand dollars. We are not advised what has been the precise amount for the year which has just expired, but as we have the amount in the Treasury on the 1st day of July, 1845, something below that on hand a year ago, it is evident there has been no excess of revenue during the fiscal year which ended on that day. With the various contingencies connected with the annexation of Texas before us, it would seem to be altogether premature to decide that we shall have any excess of revenue for the year to come; especially, whilst we have a debt of fifteen millions, to the extinction of which any surplus may be applied. It is probable that twenty-six millions may be taken as the fair average revenue to be derived from the present tariff, and it would seem to be quite time enough to reduce it when we find ourselves troubled with an actual excess.

It is true, a certain set of politicians denounced the tariff in advance, as too high to produce revenue, and prophesied most emphatically that it must be reduced in order to increase the revenue. We do not suppose, after our actual experience, that this can be the meaning of the Secretary. The experiment would seem too hazardous, for the head of the Treasury to be willing to try it. Every one knows that any considerable increase of our imports, would produce a crisis in the money market, by causing an export of specie. For the last six months, the exchanges have been constantly on the very verge of the turning point which would induce the shipment of specie, occasionally going beyond it; so that, in fact, the banks in the Atlantic cities have actually parted with that portion of their specie which may have been considered somewhat superfluous. Any further export, to the extent of a few millions, would produce an immediate sensation. The probability of this is quite sufficient, without the stimulus of a reduction of duties in any of the leading articles of our consumption. We give Mr. Secretary Walker credit for too much sagacity, to be willing, "voluntarily," to invite a money pressure, with its accompanying paralysis of industry, and the eventual poverty of the exchequer. What then can he mean by the cabalistic phrase, "*reduction to the revenue standard*?" The tariff of 1842, was emphatically a revenue measure. Its immediate object was revenue—revenue sufficient to restore the means and credit of a bankrupt Treasury. And admirably has it answered its purpose. It undertook to do this with discrimination in favour of the industry of the country, and its friends think that it has accomplished this object, also, most happily. All must admit that, under its operation, the whole country has enjoyed the highest degree of prosperity. What, then, can be the motive for change? None can be imagined but the requisitions of the fell spirit of party. A demonstration at least must be made, in order to satisfy the pledges made to the South on this subject. Mr. Secretary Walker is called on, as a matter of course, to show up the deformities of this monster of a tariff, which has been so often denounced from the stump, as a cunning device to make the rich richer and the poor poorer. We wish him joy of the task.

Fortunately, an analysis of the operation of the tariff is not difficult. It has, in fact, been made by the late Secretary Bibb, in a document prepared and published by order of the Senate, on the 1st of February, 1845. (*Senate Doc. No.* 109, *2d session*, *28th Congress.*) It gives a table of every article of import during the year ending 30th June, 1844, with the amount of duty accruing from it, with the actual rate of duty on each article, whether laid ad valorem or specifically.

As this document is not very generally known, we propose making some extracts from it for the benefit of the public. It is, in fact, a document of the greatest interest in reference to the whole question. The average rate on goods paying duty is 34,64 per cent. The article paying the highest rate of duty, imported in any considerable quantity, is that of *spirits*, the rate varying on brandy, rum, and gin, from 129 to 167 per cent., and producing one million one hundred and twenty-two thousand dollars of revenue. We shall be curious to see what reduction shall be made on these, the very highest rates of duty in the tariff, in order to bring them to the *revenue standard*, instead of the *moral standard* under which they were established.

The most important article in the whole tariff, is that of *brown sugar*, which pays a duty of 66 per cent., producing four and a half million dollars revenue, to which may be added *molasses*, which adds upwards of another million, with a duty between 39 and 40 per cent. These high duties on two of the necessaries of life, are cheerfully paid by the North, for the purpose of affording protection to the great Southern staple of sugar, withdrawing a great mass of slave labour from the overdone production of cotton; and thus, in fact, acting directly for the benefit of the whole slave region of the South. We are also curious to see how Mr. Secretary Walker will treat this matter of sugar and molasses.

With the new sugar region of his darling Texas coming into the Union, will he take two or three millions off these articles and put them on tea and coffee, now free of duty? To the consumer, it has been well said, to be all the same whether the duty on a dish of tea or coffee, be divided between them and the sweetening, or laid wholly on the latter. But it is a test question of principle, and we apprehend will call into action all the ingenuity of the Secretary.

Next in importance comes the article of iron, in its various forms. Pig iron pays a duty of 67 per cent., rolled bar iron, 88. These two articles produced a revenue of upwards of a million of dollars under these high rates of duty; with those on their kindred manufactures the highest in the tariff. No doubt a reduction of the duty on iron to 20 or 25 per cent., (supposed to be about the revenue standard,) would immensely increase the importation, and perhaps increase the revenue. But it would, in the same degree, put out the furnaces of Pennsylvania; it would arrest the present rush of capital into the iron business. Iron and its coarser manufactures consist of direct abstract labour. A high duty upon iron, can only be defended on the principle of direct positive protection to our own labourers. Cheap iron and cheap labour are synonymous terms; they must go together. This article presents another test question, and we have equal curiosity to see how the Secretary will present it to the electors of Pennsylvania, who voted for Mr. Polk, as a better friend to the tariff than Mr. Clay. The *coal* of Pennsylvania is another article protected with a duty of 64 per cent., producing a revenue of one hundred and fifty-two thousand dollars, the greater part paid by Massachusetts, the chief consumer of Nova Scotia coal. *Salt* pays a duty of 72 per cent., and produces a revenue of six hundred and fifty-nine thousand dollars. Such is the operation of this tariff on the leading articles of our consumption in the cruder productions of the country.

We now come to those requiring higher skill in the manufacture, and more capital for their establishment.

Woollen manufactures pay an ad valorem duty of 40 per cent., and produce a revenue of upwards of two millions of dollars. This manufacture has always given rise to the most difficult questions in the arrangement of the tariff, owing to the difficulty of adjusting the duty on wool to the satisfaction of both wool-growers and the manufacturers, whilst our own production of wool was much below our consumption. This difficulty is fast disappearing. The increase in the production of wool, more especially in the Western States, is furnishing us a full supply, except of the very coarsest sorts, costing under seven cents a pound. In this state of things, any considerable reduction of the duty, which will materially increase the importation of woollen manufactures, will act directly upon the price of the raw material, reducing it in proportion. The duty of 40 per cent. is sufficiently reasonable as a mere revenue duty, and falls chiefly on the higher branches of the manufacture, worn by the richer portions of the community; whilst the coarser articles, for common clothing and the common carpetings, are furnished by our own manufactures, under our improved machinery, at prices so low as to leave no reasonable ground of complaint as to prices, and effectually to shut out foreign competition.

We come now to the most important of our manufactures, that of *cotton*—which exhibits the greatest triumph of the protective policy, which has attracted to it the greatest amount of capital, at the same time that its fabrics have been in the greatest degree reduced in price. It is not, perhaps, surprising that its success should have made it the object of the especial hatred and abuse of the enemies of all protection. Mr. Secretary Walker may, therefore, very probably feel himself called on to exercise all his ingenuity in finding grounds of attack upon this manufacture. We challenge him to the strictest scrutiny—to the fullest collection of facts.

It is well known that this manufacture has grown up under the protection of a specific duty, in the form of a minimum valuation, introduced by South Carolina in 1816, but which has been since repudiated by that State in terms of the grossest billingsgate. The present tariff levies a duty of six cents, at least, the square yard, on all manufactures of which cotton is a component part, and when printed or coloured, of nine cents.

The table informs us that the whole amount of revenue derived from goods to which the minimum principle is applied, was $4,273,000, averaging 38 per cent. on the whole cost, and which is thus classified:

		Rates of duty.
$1,121,000	from goods costing above the minimum,	30 per cent.
2,574,000	from printed and col'd goods, at 9c. s. q.	43 do.
544,000	from plain goods, at 6 cents square yard,	45¼ do.
34,000	from velvets, &c. at 10½ cents sq. yard,	35 do.

We trust the Secretary will give this subject of the cotton manufacture, a thorough examination in all its bearings; that he will ascertain what description of articles we manufacture, what we import, what we export, and what we consume, with the comparative prices. We will venture to predict what will be the result of such an examination. He will find that in all the lower branches of the manufacture, in all those goods in most common use, and which constitute the consumption of the masses, our own manufacture furnishes not only an abundant supply for our own consumption, but a constant and increasing export in competition with other nations. He will find, on obtaining samples of the goods actually imported, that they consist, in a very great measure, of the higher-priced fanciful articles, mostly mixtures of cotton with wool and silk, worn by the rich, and that, in this article especially, this large amount of revenue is derived from what may be termed luxuries. He will learn that the clamour of certain papers, like the New York Evening Post, of the cotton minimum being a severe tax on the clothing of the poor, is the merest humbuggery; and that the effect of the minimum is, in fact, most admirable as a mere revenue measure, not only as a security against fraud, but as levying the highest duty on those productions of fancy, where it is most readily paid by the consumers who choose to indulge themselves in such luxuries.

He will learn, it is true, that the manufacture is at this moment in a state of great prosperity, and that the profits have never been greater; but he will learn that the most profitable branch of the manufacture is that of making goods for the export trade, especially for the China market. And he will learn, in this connexion, that since the opening of the China trade, cotton manufactures have also greatly advanced in price in England; and that the profits of their manufacturers are probably even greater than our own. He will also learn that a greater amount of capital is now going into this manufacture, in all its branches, than at any former period; that, throughout the whole country, every establishment for making machinery is in full employment, and constantly increasing their means of operation.

We will not anticipate the conclusions to which these different facts shall bring the mind of the Secretary, with a single exception. When he shall have learned, as he will learn, that the heavy cottons, combining much of the raw material with a small quantity of labour, which we are now exporting in such quantities along the coast of China, and even to Japan, to say nothing of other parts of the world, are wholly of American origin as a manufacture, he cannot fail to perceive that the whole cotton-growing region of the South is deeply interested in the extension of this manufacture, which carries their staple into a new and extensive market, which has heretofore been wholly supplied from cotton grown in the East. He cannot fail to perceive that South Carolina, in establishing the cotton minimum in 1816, was laying the foundation of the most extraordinary revolution in commerce which the world has ever seen—the turning back upon Asia her own essential production, the manufacture to which her own province of Calicut had, for centuries, given a name throughout the world; a revolution, perhaps, more extraordinary than that which has taken place in the opinions of South Carolina herself. He cannot fail to perceive that there is good ground for the late movement of the South in throwing off the delusion of the forty-bale theory, and in ranging themselves on the side of the protective system, of which they share a full portion of the benefits.

One of the greatest innovations of the tariff of 1842, is the change on manufactures of silk, from an ad valorem to a specific duty of two and a half dollars the pound weight. The table informs us that the duty has amounted to 25¼ per cent. on the cost, producing a revenue of $1,586,000. This change was made at the request of the American importers of silks, in order to counteract the frauds committed by the foreign importers. The result is believed to be satisfactory to those best acquainted with its operation. Some descriptions of silk goods, doubtless, pay a higher rate of duty than others, but the whole effect is, probably, as equal as any other arrangement. It has the advantage of great simplicity: at any rate, it is wholly a revenue measure. Leghorn hats produce a revenue of a quarter of a million dollars, at a duty of 35 per cent. The cotton bagging, known by the name of gunny-cloth, pays a duty of five cents the square yard, amounting to 113 per cent. on the cost; yet such is the facility and cheapness with which it is produced in India, that it continues to be imported in small quantities, a revenue of 6,400 dollars having been derived from it. At a duty of 25 per cent., this cheap bagging would doubtless break down all the factories making hemp bagging in Kentucky and Tennessee; at the same time, it would furnish freight for some thirty or forty ships from Calcutta. The table shows that the duty on agricultural produce is not wholly nominal, as is sometimes contended. *Potatoes* produce upwards of ten thousand dollars revenue, at a rate of duty amounting to thirty per cent.; *cheese*, upwards of $5,000, at a duty of 67 per cent. The table gives a revenue of upwards of 300,000 dollars on raw cotton, at a rate of 50 per cent. duty: but this was, doubtless, drawn back on export. The same is doubtless true of many descriptions of manufactures paying a high rate of duty, being imported expressly for exportation.

The most unequal duty of the tariff is that on *wines*, especially under the construction put upon our reciprocity treaties by Mr. Secretary Bibb. He has decided that Madeira wine, costing two dollars the gallon, is a "*like article*" with the white wine of France, costing less than twenty-five cents; and so of others. The consequence is, that Madeira wine pays a duty of 4 1-10 per cent.; Port, 8¼; whilst the duty on other wines ranges from 30 to 50 per cent. Nothing can put the folly of arranging our tariff by treaty, in a stronger light. An extension of it, as proposed by the Zollverein treaty, besides the folly of tying up our own hands, would be opening a door to the worst system of intrigue and corruption. It would lead to a constant sectional struggle for sectional treaty favours, at whatever sacrifice of other portions of the country.

We have thus seen the operation of the much abused tariff of 1842, in all the leading articles of consumption. We have seen its protection diffused, as equally as possible, over every part of the country. We think it will puzzle a wise man to find much to object to, either in its principles or its details. On the contrary, we think the country owes a debt of gratitude to its authors, for their skill and care in its construction. Its adoption was one of those events which stamp a decided character on the period in which they occur. It may be said to be the pivot on which turned the fate of the country. The currency had been long deranged; with a deficient revenue, the credit of the General Government had been reduced to the lowest ebb; trade was prostrate; industry paralyzed; the public mind was filled with apprehension and dismay at the portentous indications of the future, when this measure, adopted with the greatest difficulty, carried almost by miracle, changed, as if by enchantment, the whole scene. In the short space of a year, the whole country passed from the depth of suffering, idleness, and depression, to a state of the most active prosperity, and the fullest confidence. No one capable of tracing cause and effect, can doubt that this change was the direct and immediate result of the tariff. This state of full prosperity has met with no check to the present time. Under the present system, we have nothing to fear but over-action. We may possibly go ahead too fast: there is no other fear. We think he must be a bold man, and that must be a bold party, which will seriously, and in earnest, set about any radical change in this system—a system abundantly showering its benefits over the whole country, and which has fully approved itself to our whole experience.

THE NEWS BY THE CAMBRIA.

We have given our close attention to the news just received from England, by the steamship Cambria, bringing dates down to the first ultimo.

The English Premier has laid before Parliament his intentions as respects alterations which he proposes in the tariff laws of Great Britain, and we have little doubt they will create no small sensation here.

If properly understood, they contain a most important lesson, by which we of this country should profit.

By those who consider political economy as an abstract science, and are therefore blinded to our best national interests, they will doubtless be paraded forth as offerings on the part of Great Britain to a liberal system, approaching to "free trade;" and we shall hear much said in their favour, as calculated greatly to benefit our agricultural interest.

To us, they have an entirely different aspect, and show a stronger necessity (if possible) than ever existed before, for our adherence to the protective policy. We have examined that policy so fully, in the review we have given of the report of Mr. Secretary Walker, and it is so ably advocated in two other documents which will be found in this number, by the Hon. Abbott Lawrence, and the Hon. Nathan Appleton, that it is unnecessary for us, at this time, to do more than to examine somewhat into the proposed measures of the British ministry, so far as they may be supposed to affect the internal industry of the United States, and our commerce with the British European empire.

What is the situation of England, and for what purpose are these alterations about to be made? Fortunately, for a true understanding of this, we are not left to conjecture. Sir Robert Peel has told us. We quote from his speech, as reported in the newspapers: "Wearied with our long and unavailing efforts to enter into satisfactory commercial treaties with other nations, we have resolved at length to consult our own interests, and not to punish other nations for the wrong they do us, in continuing the high duties upon the importations of our produce and manufactures, and in encouraging unlawful trade!"

This is a frank avowal, and we propose to examine somewhat into its bearings upon this country, believing that we can show that whatever may be the interests of Great Britain, which these measures will promote, they will do us little, if any good. Nay, more; that if they are not duly understood and properly guarded against, by an adherence to our present protective policy, they are calculated to do us vast injury. Justly to appreciate the motive which prompts them, and their bearing upon us, we must take a short view of the present situation of the two countries, England and the United States.

It will not be denied that Sir Robert Peel, throughout his whole speech, (to which we must refer the reader, it being too long for insertion here,) takes the ground that the concessions he proposes to make, can be made without injury to the landed interest of England, and to the great benefit of her general industry. In other words, to her manufactures—for no man will deny that the second (we had almost said the first) great interest of England is her manufactures.

England, finding herself pressed upon by the rising manufactures of continental Europe and the United States meeting her in their own markets and in many others throughout the world, and having failed, as the Premier says, "to enter into satisfactory treaties with other nations," he has concluded to "consult her own interests." Now, what treaties has he failed to enter into? Is not the answer to this question plain, from the policy pursued by other nations, namely, the protection of their own industry, as every other nation does protect it. Nay, is it not rendered more plain by the eulogy pronounced upon the King of Naples, and his writings on political economy?

Naples, then, and its King, according to Sir Robert Peel, have the only enlightened views upon political economy. The whole of continental Europe is sunk in cimmerian darkness, as to the true commercial policy, according to Sir Robert, except the boot of Italy, where a large portion of the mass of the people are sunk into every debasement resulting from idleness—dragging out a miserable existence—living in filth and beggary.

France and Germany—what can they know of their own best interests? They will not profit by the wisdom put forth in the publication of Sir Robert's oracle of political economy.

If we had no other evidence than this, from the English Premier himself, it should be all-sufficient to settle the question, and to show what are the kind of treaties England has failed in making. If our readers would know more particularly their nature, we refer them to the famous Methuen treaty, made in 1703, with Portugal; the terms of which they will find in the first page of the October number of the National Magazine. A treaty which sealed the fate of Portugal, as is, also, described by the Abbé Raynal, commencing at page 777 of our February number.

Sir Robert Peel, then, as we have said, has told us as plainly as words can speak, that England having failed by treaties, falsely called treaties of reciprocity, to reduce other nations to become colonies of Great Britain, has now determined to pursue her own interests, (surely this is not offered as a change in her motives,) and place it, if possible, in the power of her artisans to force other nations into her said policy, by removing all duties that bear with the slightest pressure upon their industry.

Now, we complain not of this. Great Britain is a very densely populated country, and her ministers have an undoubted right, nay it is their duty, to do all that government can do to aid the public industry. They think this will be accomplished by a reduction of all duties upon articles of food, whether of vegetable or animal origin.

The situation of England is thus as precisely opposed to that in which the United States is placed, as a different combination of circumstances could possibly place them; for, while the population of England are crying out for cheap food, ours is happily supplied with it at low prices and in the greatest abundance. We are, in fact, in exactly the situation so much coveted by England; nay, we are much better off than she can ever be. She has neither of the raw materials of wool nor cotton, and we have both in the greatest profusion. We have acquired a great portion of the skill necessary to convert them into articles of clothing. We are not behind her in the raw materials of coal and iron. We have been wise enough to follow the policy followed by every other nation, and keep our own market for our own people—and now England hopes by giving currency to the false idea that she will, by her change of policy, open a great market for our agricultural produce, to lure us into the snare, in which, by the Methuen treaty, she caught poor Portugal; and there can be little doubt President Polk and Secretary Walker, will be all ready to fall into it.

But we trust there will be a redeeming spirit in Congress—an anti-English, an American spirit, that will not permit England to accomplish by legislation what she never can do by her arms—reduce us again to Colonial vassalage.

It would be worse than useless, at this time, to speculate on the possible quantities of grain and provisions we can sell to advantage in England, should the proposed alterations in the English tariff, presented to Parliament, take place. We have, we think, proved, in a former number of this work, that under an entire repeal of the corn laws we can reap no benefit; and, therefore, we shall gain no advantage from the proposed reduction in grain and flour. And as to the result of the free admission of provisions, we are equally skeptical. The Agricultural districts of Continental Europe will be our competitors, and will, no doubt, meet any demand that may be created by the new state of things. This, we say, is our decided conviction, after a knowledge derived from a three years' residence in the North of Europe. But ,for the sake of the argument, were we to admit that some portion of grain and provisions might go from the United States to England, it could not be as much as the proportion of our population now engaged in agriculture could produce, in addition to what they now raise. This is likely quickly to increase; for, notwithstanding that manufactures are augmenting to such extent among us, it surely will not be denied that agriculture is as rapidly advancing, both in the progress making in that pursuit as a science, and in the additional quantity of land annually brought into culture.

View the proposed alterations by the British Government in what light we may, they offer no incentive whatever to change the course of policy which has made us so prosperous, and dispensed so many of the blessings of existence to the great mass of our population.

We trust, therefore, that at least before any measures are taken to fall into plans avowedly adopted for the particular interest of England, time will be allowed to witness some of the promised benefits. And as the acquisition of knowledge is always desirable, we would propose, mean time, that Congress should instruct our Charge d'Affaires at Naples, to make particular inquiries into the present state of the internal industry and external commerce of that country, to which Sir Robert Peel refers all other nations as an example. Let us know the extent of their agricultural pursuits—the quantity of grain produced per acre, the number of persons employed in agriculture, and in manufactures. The state of living among the mechanics and labourers—their daily wages, and every thing relating to their physical condition. Also, the number of universities, colleges, and schools, and how many scholars are taught at the public expense.

This will give us, perhaps, some light upon the effects produced by the superiour knowledge possessed by the Sovereign of that country, and so much applauded in the British House of Commons by their great premier.

Let us also have an edition of King's great work immediately imported and translated, to be published as a Congressional document, appended to the report of our Neapolitan Charge.

But to be serious—the whole matter of Sir Robert's speech is made to appear somewhat ridiculous by his reference to Naples and its King. We have had recent conversations with a friend who spent last winter in Naples, and who describes its population as among the most wretched of the lazaroni of Italy—the very best of whom do not consume as much wholesome food in a week, as the commonest labourer in this country consumes in a day—how could it be otherwise, when a Neapolitan labourer earns for his day's work about six or seven cents.

In confirmation of these views, we copy from page 75, of letters from Italy, by J. T. Headly, an American traveller, who was at Naples in March, 1843, the following statement of the results of the political economy which, according to Sir Robert Peel, is the very best known to him:

"It is nonsense to expect beauty among a population that live in filth and eat the vilest substances, to escape the powers of starvation. The filthy dens in which they are crammed, the tattered garments in which they are but half hid, and the haggard faces of hundreds of badly fed women and children, that meet the eye at every step as I enter the city at night, overthrow all the pleasures of the day, and I retire to my room, angry with that political and social system, that requires two-thirds to die of starvation, that the other third may die of surfeit. The King of Naples has five palaces, while thousands of his subjects have not one blanket."

We have thus given a few of our views and opinions on the late news, as to any probable effect upon us which may grow out of it. We profess to know something of England and continental Europe, and are willing to record these impressions for future reference. If our councils are wise, we shall adhere to that legislation which has proved so much for *our* interests, and then all will be well—while ruin and distress will be our portion, should we listen to that syren voice which would allure us into the policy of Sir Robert Peel, or his exalted friend the King of Naples.

But we refer our readers to the article in this number which follows, and they will then see "some account of Naples," taken from Mr. Macgregor's work.

SOME ACCOUNT OF NAPLES.

As Sir Robert Peel, by the notice he has taken of Naples, has made her situation, as to her internal policy and foreign commerce, a matter of public interest, and as we are desirous to throw all the light we can upon every subject which may be useful at this critical juncture of our own internal policy, the very best in the whole world, with the exception of our so-called reciprocity treaties, we have made the following extracts from an English work, by John Macgregor, author of British America, and one of the joint Secretaries of the Board of Trade, published in London, in 1844. It is called "A Digest of the Productive Resources, Commercial Legislation, Customs, Tariffs, &c., &c., of all Nations."

We have not space at this time, to give the whole account of Naples and the two Sicilies; our present number is too far advanced, but we shall take space enough for the purpose of showing to the American people the state of a country which, according to Sir Robert Peel, is governed by a King who is a great political economist, much better than can be found in France or Germany, or, indeed, in the world!

The provinces of Naples Proper, according to Mr. Macgregor, contained, in 1840, a population of 6,177,598. There is only in the continental kingdom, one teacher to about 1,000 inhabitants, while there is a priest, or monk, for every 120. But the teachers are generally ignorant, and great care is taken that the system of instruction shall not expand the mind on the subject of civil or religious liberty. The roads of the Kingdom of Naples are stated to have become an object of increased attention on the part of Goverment; they are divided into three classes: the royal roads, which are maintained at the expense of the treasury; the provincial roads, which cost 350,000 ducats yearly, defrayed by a rate; and the common roads, for which 1,000,000 ducats are paid by the communes.

Notwithstanding this statement, generally speaking, the roads are bad, and often impassable, especially in the Abruzzi and Calabria. Even in the neighbourhood of Naples, except a part of the road to Posilepo, as far as finished by the French, and that opposite to Castellamare, and the road leading to Rome, there are few roads that are passable with carriages.

"The Neapolitan peasantry," says Mr. Goodwin, "who form the bulk of the population, are a rough, but kind-hearted set of people, who only require to be well used and honestly treated, to become good subjects and hard labourers. Hitherto, their masters have dealt with them ahly, and met with a corresponding return. In Calabria, the peasants generally live in villages, whence they go forth daily to their work in the field. During nine months in the year, the day labourer earns about six shillings sterling, (twenty-four cents per day;) during the other three, or during the harvest and vintage, he gets double wages. In some parts, the unmarried labourer is lodged and boarded by his master, whilst the married man has a cottage, rent free, about four-pence sterling, eight cents per day, and a monthly allowance of corn, wine, and oil.

"The working population of Sicily consists of six classes; namely, labourers in husbandry, labourers in mines, labourers in factories, labourers in handicrafts, labourers in fisheries, and labourers on the sea, most of which are divided into two sections, as skilled labourers, or masters, and common labourers, or journeymen. The number of working days in the year varies from 250, the average work of a miner, to 295, the average of a wine cooper. A handicraft works about 266, and a day labourer, a cotton spinner, and a silk throwster, work each about 275 days. The yearly earnings of common, or journeymen labourers, are £8. 17s. 4d., about 42 dollars. The average of bleachers, £25. 17s. 2d. In silk factories, a girl who turns the wheel, £6. 1s. 8d. sterling, 29 dollars 20 cents per annum. In the cotton mills, a boy who is a spinner earns £3. 17s. 4d., 18 dollars, 50 cents per annum. A man spinner, £13. 15s., or 65 dollars per annum. A female weaver earns £6. 18s. sterling, or 33 dollars 12 cents per annum.

The wages of a handicraft journeyman varies from $57 to $65 per annum. The average of a journeyman hatter is £25. 17s. 2d., or $125 per annum.

The average of journeymen's wages in all the different departments of the arts, is £15. 5s. 8d., or $74 dollars per annum. Farm servants receive 4½d. sterling in cash, and 3d. in kind. The payment in kind is thus regulated: men and boys receive, daily, 3½ pounds of coarse bread, with pulse, or cheese, or with half a pint of oil the year round."

There is much more of this, and we regret we have not room for it. But have we not copied enough from Mr. Macgregor, to satisfy our labourers and workmen, that however Sir Robert Peel may like the political economy of Naples, it offers no great advantages to them!

But what can Sir Robert mean? The annexed table of duties, with the accompanying remarks, are taken from Mr. Macgregor's book; and really, we cannot see that the King of Naples has as free a trade with England as that of this country. Perhaps there may be some proposed new plan which Mr. Macgregor did not know of; if so, neither Sir Robert nor the King of Naples can tell how it will operate till it is tried.

The following tables, showing the rate of the high duties imposed on cotton and woollen manufactures, were prepared for us at Naples and Palermo, in 1839:

Calculation of Duties on the following Manufactures.—Naples, November, 18, 1839.

Description of Goods.	Length of Piece.	First Cost in England.	First Duty in Naples.	Nett Duty in Naples.	Per Centage of Duty on first Cost.	Remarks.
	yds.	s. d.		duc.	per cent.	
9-8 Cotton Shirtings, or Madapollams,	24	6 8 per piece.	20 gr. per cane.	1.98¾ per piece.	fully 100 on average.	A great consumption of this article.
" " "	26	7 0 "	" "	2.15 "		
" " "	27	7 2 "	" "	2.23 "		
" " "	40	18 0 "	" "	3.25 "	fully 60	Not made in Naples.
9-8 Cambrics,	12	3 8 "	" "	1.03¾ "	nearly 95	" "
9-8 Jaconets,	20	11 3 "	" "	1.67 "	about 49	" "
6-4 do.	20	13 6 "	26 "	2.14½ "	" 53	" "
6-4 Cambrics,	12	7 6 "	" "	1.32¼ "	fully 58	" "
6-4 Book Lappets,	10	6 8 "	40 "	1.67 "	" 83	" "
6-4 Lappets and Victorias, and Lappets and Nets,	12	5 6 "	" "	2.00 "	" 123	
Longcloths—Manchester,	37	12 0 "	19 "	2 87 "	nearly 80	
do. East India,	36	15 6 "	" "	2.79¼ "	fully 60	
9-8 Prints,	24	15 0 "	45 "	4.36 "	nearly 97	Consumption large.
7-8 "	28	say 10s. "	" "	5.08 "	fully 169	Selling price would be about 6.50 ducats, but duty is prohibitive at present.
Dimities,	..	0 5¼ per yard.	" "	0.18¼ per yard.	" 139	
Linen Drills,	..	1 6 "	" "	0.18¼ "	" 40	
Lastings,	28	4 6 per piece	" "	5.07 per piece.	" 35	Not made in Naples.
Says,	40	80 0 "	" "	7.25 "	" 30	" "
Flannel,	24	say 63s. "	56 "	5.40 "	" 28	
Merinoes,	28	40 0 "	" "	6.29 "	" 50	Not made in Naples.
Cassinets,	..	1 10 per yard.	" "	0.23 per yard.	nearly 42	" "
Handkerchiefs, 15-16,	..	3 0 per dozen.	8 gr. each handkercf.	0.97 per dozen.	" 108	
" 4-4,	..	3 6 "				
" 9-8,	..	4 9 "	10 "	1.15 "	fully 92	
" 5-4,	..	10 6 "	12 "	1.41 "	" 44	
Velveteens, 16 inches,	..	0 8½ per yard.	32 gr. per can.	0.13 per yard.	" 61	Not made in Naples.
" 21 "	..	0 11 "	40 "	0.16½ "	" 59	" "
" 26 "	..	1 2¼ "	48 "	0.19½ "	" 53	" "
Cords, 26 "	..	1 0 "	35 "	0.14¼ "	" 47	
Silk Handkerchiefs, (Corahs,)	..	24 6 per piece.	duc. 3 per lb. gross wt.	3.50 per piece.	" 47	
Cotton and Worsted Shawls, (mixed,) 60 inches,	..	39 6 per dozen.	" 1.50 pr rotolo grss.	6.00 per dozen.	" 50	Not made in Naples.
8-4 Fringed Cotton Shawls, 59 inches,	..	25 6 "	" " " "	5.35 "	nearly 70	" "

Woollen cloths no longer come from England: supplies chiefly received from Belgium, France, and Prussia. Selling price about 12 ducats per cane,—duty 4.30 per cane.

Linens.—Very few come from England—chiefly from Switzerland and Germany. Selling price about 1.60 ducats per cane, duty 42½ grains per cane, (3 canes—7 yards.)

When the duty is charged by weight, the case or package is also included in the weight paid for.

" *Silk.*—The silk manufacture is carried on in the cities of Palermo, Messina, Catania, and Aci Reale, where about 550 looms give employment to upwards of 1,200 weavers and others. In Catania, where the hours of labour are twelve a day, a woman can earn, as a reeler or picker, 6d., and a girl, as a wheel-turner, or sorter 4d. A man, as a weaver, working at home, can earn from 1s. 2d. to 1s. 6d. a day, in summer, and proportionally less in winter, as he can work by daylight only. At Palermo, every part of the process, from the reeling to the weaving, is carried on by a Mr. Pavin, who employs about twenty male adults, and sixty women and girls. A woman, working nine hours a day, may earn about 8d. in reeling; a girl may earn about 4d. in turning, or 2d. in winding. A male weaver, working ten hours a day, may earn, in plain fabrics, 1s. 4d.; in fancy work, 1s. 8d.; and in damasked, 2s. 8d., out of which sums he must pay his piecer 4d. The articles woven, are satins, plain and striped, broche, gros de Naples, plain and checked, taffety, tartan handkerchiefs, and bareges, with open-work."

FREE TRADE AND THE BRITISH LANDHOLDER,

ONCE MORE.

We published in our January number, a letter from William Brown, Esq., of Liverpool, an English landholder, to John Rolfe, Esq., a member of Parliament, setting forth in strong colours the advantages of Free Trade to the landed interest of Great Britain, inasmuch as exporting cloths, callico, and hardware, was exporting the agricultural produce of Great Britain; and that as England exported £50,000,000 sterling, in those articles, she was the greatest grain-exporting country in the world.

Further to elucidate this matter, we ask attention to the following article, taken from an anti-corn law journal, " The Economist," dated in London, in December last.

The writer of this article appears well to understand his subject, and if we could place a copy of it in the house of every farmer in the United States, we should very much rejoice, for we have never seen an article more strongly enforcing the value of the home market.

What can be more impressive than such a sentiment as the following: " Manchester, Birmingham, and Leeds, are the great merchants who buy up the Duke of Buckingham's wheat at 55s. per quarter, pay a bounty of 20s. with it, and then sell it abroad at 35s. per quarter. In fact, it is the foreigner who pays the farm labourer and the landlord's rent—and if the

Chinamen, and the Yankees, and the Germans, were to stop payment, what would become of mortgages and daughters' settlements."

What will the progressive democracy of Pennsylvania say to this? Would it not be much better to be employed at something that would pay the rent of our own land, and provide for our own daughters? The truth is, Mr. Walker's recommendations, in his anti-American report, suit this writer exactly, and, if adopted, will play into the hands and enrich the British landholder handsomely, while it will lessen the value of our own farmers productions in precisely the same proportions.

Poor Pennsylvania! she has made great and mighty struggles to redeem her credit and honour, to little purpose, if, after having honestly discharged to England the whole of the interest due on her stock, that portion of her industry in her iron mines, iron, coal, and her manufactures, which has enabled her, through the invigorating effects of the tariff of 1842, to accomplish so much, is to be destroyed, and her people are to toil night and day to renumerate English landlords, and provide settlements for English married daughters!!

Why was so much treasure expended in the revolution—so much blood spilt at Brandywine's well-fought field, at Germantown, Valley Forge, and at White Plains—surely not to obtain the high distinction of being tributary to the landed interest of Great Britain!!! But we have said enough, and we are keeping our readers too long from such a convincing document as the following:

FOREIGN TRADE AND FARM PRODUCE.

To the Editor of the Economist.

Dear Sir—I wish Sir John Tyrell would answer me the following questions:

1st.—How is it that Mr. Dillon, of Fore street, can export goods to Poland, where wheat, on an average, sells at 20s to 25s less than at Manchester, the goods being manufactured at the latter place?

2d.—If the wheat eaten by the Lancashire weavers, who work for the Polish market, was sent into Mark Lane to sell, would it affect the price?

Perhaps I can help Sir John to answer the question, by reminding him that this country once grew so much more than it required, that government, for seventy-three years, gave a bounty of 5s, per quarter, on every quarter of wheat that was sent out at a price less than 48s. per quarter.

We then exported about 300,000 quarters per annum. One year we exported upwards of a million. If such was the case formerly, how is it we cannot export wheat now? Oh! you answer, because Mark Lane is the dearest market in the world. We cannot send wheat averaging 56s. per quarter to countries where it averages 36s. per quarter! But I reply—you are mistaken; we do export wheat every year, and if we did not, there would be such an outcry among the farmers against the over-production of wheat, that a bounty, not of 5s. per quarter, but of 25s. per quarter, would be requisite to enable them to get their grain out of the country.

Sir John will, perhaps, look aghast at these "wild expressions," but they are as sober as they are important.

We had not much foreign trade when we exported raw wheat, and our production of wheat has been progressively increasing since. What has become of it? Why, it has been consumed by those artisans, weavers, and spinners, who have *exported* their cutlery, cloth, and yarn, and who have paid the Essex farmer for his wheat, in the money the Polish, and Russian, and American wheat grower has paid to him for his cutlery and goods.

If every loom that weaves for the foreign market, and every hand employed for the foreign market, was brought to a stand-still, or sent out of this country, what would become of the British farmer? I don't hesitate to say, that his wheat would fall 20s. a quarter. I will prove it. In the year 1844, there was paid in wages, for the cotton goods exported from this country, about £9,435,708. If we take one-third of this as spent in flour, or oatmeal, or barley, either directly or indirectly—and this is a low computation—then we have a sum equal to 1,575,618 quarters of grain.

He who knows the effect of Lancashire at work, or Lancashire idle, upon the grain market, knows that a surplus of 3,000,000 quarters of grain, (and such quantity, at least, I take to be equivalent to our exports of all kinds of goods, or in other words, the quantity consumed by our population dependant directly or indirectly upon the export trade,) would produce a strange revulsion in the corn market.

It is idle to say, then, we must grow less, for by increase of produce alone can we increase the rent of land, and the landowner is more interested than any one else in the foreign trade. Let me put it in another form. Suppose Prussia, Russia, and America, could say to our artisans, who grind, weave, or spin for these countries, "Come to us, and settle down beside the market for your goods. You make the things we use, come and eat the produce of our lands." Well! the over-productionists cry, "Let them go."

Be it so! "Let them go," I echo, and what next. Your population, my lords and gentlemen, will be reduced three millions at least. You are dealers! what will you do with three million fewer mouths for your provision shops? You must send your wheat to them, or else you will have no buyers. But, mark, if you send it in the shape of wheat, and not as goods, you must take wheat price in the country to which you send it. Rather thank the foreigner that he is willing to let the men who manufacture for him, live in this country to eat your provisions; and chiefly thank the British manufacturer, whose skill alone compels the foreigner to buy the goods that are made out of your provisions.

Mistake me not. I mean that the manufacturer for the foreign market gives you a bounty of 10s. to 20s. on three million quarters of grain.

All know that labour and food are ingredients in the cost of everything. Each quarter of wheat that is put into a piece of cloth, is sold in countries to compete with wheat at a much lower price—that is, a bounty is sent with it. This bounty is the manufacturer's skill. If Sir John, or any landowner has accompanied me so far, he may reply, "Yes, I see this, but iron and coal are cheaper in England." Quite right! But you have your goods to send per railroad to the port, you have freight, &c. to pay, and it is nothing but the manufacturer's skill, talent, and industry, that enables him to send British labour, fed upon wheat at 6s. per quarter, to countries where labour is fed upon wheat at 35s. per quarter.

Besides, how would your population be employed if it were not for foreign trade. Supposing no goods were exported, would your *increasing* population have any employment?

Why, in 1801, wheat was admitted at a duty of 6d. per quarter, at or above 54s. 6d., and the population of Great Britain was 10,472,048. The population, in 1841, had increased to 18,540,682; and, instead of admitting wheat at 6d. a quarter, a duty is imposed of 18s. upon wheat at 54s. 6d. per quarter.

If our population were only to manufacture for itself, we should soon have such a competition for every piece of work, that wages would fall, and with low wages, grain would fall to the price of wheat in ages long gone by. It is only because our people have been able to find employment and a paymaster abroad, that they are not reduced to the wretchedness of Irishmen.

Let then the landowner encourage foreign trade. If the foreigner sends his produce here, he will have more money to spend in British manufactures, and as the demand increases for them, along with it will the demand increase for British grown grain.

Let the corn laws be abolished, and Sir John Tyrrell will find that the Essex farmers will benefit more by their repeal than the mancfacturers themselves.

Every quarter of foreign grain, imported at 35s. per quarter, will cause an additional one to be exported at 55s. per quarter; provided, that the trade be regular, not in fits and starts, but as regular as unrestricted trade can be. I am, dear sir, yours faithfully,

SEXTUS.

N. B.—1. If foreign trade raises the price of 3,000,000 quarters of wheat 20s. a quarter, it raises the price of the whole produce of the island to the same extent.

2. Manchester, Birmingham, and Leeds are the great merchants who buy up the Duke of Buckingham's wheat at 55s. per quarter, pay a bounty of 20s. with it, and then sell it abroad at 35s. per quarter.

3. In fact, it is the foreigner who pays the farm labourer and the landlord's rent, and if the Chinamen, and the Yankees, and the Germans were to stop payment, what would become of mortgages and daughters' settlements?

FACTS FOR FREE TRADERS.

We have received the following facts for this work, which, we are informed, can be substantiated on oath, when required.

Within the past year, 200 houses have been built in Pawtucket, and the adjoining village of Central Falls, all by the hands employed in the manufactures of the two places, some of which have cost upwards of $2,000.

The deposits in the Pawtucket Saving's Bank, amount, on an average, to $70,000.

The following are the prices paid for wages, in the years 1842 and 1845. They all relate to the same hands who were employed in both years:

	Wages for the Month of December, 1842.	December, 1845.
Female Weavers,	$11 12	$17 03
" "	11 16	18 80
" "	10 76	17 80
" "	12 60	21 85
" "	13 32	17 27
" "	11 30	18 64
Engineer, per day,	1 33	1 75
Machinist,	1 33	1 75
Fireman,	75	1 00
Spare girls, per week,	18s. to 21s.	4 00

Before the protective duty was enacted, the best workmen could only obtain one dollar per day; the same men now receive one dollar and a half per day.

ENGLISH CORN TRADE.

We take from the London Economist, of December the 13th, the following tables, which will be found interesting, as showing the quantity of grain and flour imported into England, in the ten months ending the 5th of November, for the last three years. The amounts are in quarters of eight bushels each.

We offer these tables in further evidence, that England can be, and is supplied from the corn growing States of Europe with whatever she needs, in times when her crops are short.

GRAIN, FLOUR, AND MEAL.

There was never a moment when this trade excited greater interest than at present. The following tables exhibit the quantities of each kind of *grain*, of *flour*, and *meal*, imported in the ten months ending the 5th of November, for the last three years, and the total quantities of all kinds. Of wheat, the quantity imported in the present year is less than half of that imported last year, and more than thirty per cent. below the quantity imported in 1843. Of barley, the imports of the present year are much below those of last year, but somewhat in excess of 1843. Of oats, the imports of the present year are greatly in excess of any former year of late, and amount to no less than 449,523 quarters. Of beans and Indian corn, the imports are larger in the present year, and of peas, considerably less. The total imports of grain of all kinds, in the present year, are upwards of *nine hundred thousand quarters* less than in the same period of 1844, while flour and meal show a deficiency in the import of nearly *four hundred thousand* cwts.—thus:

Grain, Flour, and Meal, Imported Jan. 5th, to Nov. 5th.

	1843. QUARTERS.	1844. QUARTERS.	1845. QUARTERS.
Wheat,	837,966	1,054,428	518,002
Barley,	157,943	841,348	312,431
Oats,	63,984	258,830	449,523
Rye,	2,660	25,082	305
Peas,	30,880	99,253	44,746
Beans,	46,998	127,641	133,739
Maize, or Indian Corn,	515	23,361	50,013
Buckwheat,	2	573	1,772
Malt,	26		
Total of all kinds of grain imported	1,140,973	2,430,516	1,510,531

	CWTS.	CWTS.	CWTS.
Flour,	210,116	904,866	520,225
Oatmeal,	2,289	3,726	2,825
Indian meal,	1	105	
Total flour and meal,	212,406	908,697	523,050

The following table shows the quantity of grain of each kind, flour, and meal, and the totals of all on which duty has been paid for consumption in the present year, compared with 1844 and 1843. Of wheat, the quantity duty paid is less than a seventh of that of last year, and below an eighth of that of 1843. Of oats, only, is there an increase. Of the total quantity of grain of all kinds, the present year shows a quantity, duty paid, less by *twelve hundred thousand* quarters, compared with 1844, and by nearly *two hundred thousand* quarters, compared with 1843. The quantity of flour and meal shows a reduction upon last year of nearly *two hundred thousand* cwts.—thus:

Grain, Flour, and Meal, duty paid, Jan. 5th, to Nov. 5th.

	1843. QUARTERS.	1844. QUARTERS.	1845. QUARTERS.
Wheat,	853,871	789,814	100,614
Barley,	202,948	841,246	235,229
Oats,	38,888	213,276	419,543
Rye,	2,723	13,940	23
Peas,	32,942	113,819	40,643
Beans,	31,748	211,562	146,206
Maize, or Indian corn,	10,069	25,273	36,707
Buckwheat,	2	576	1,104
Total all kinds of grain entered for consump.	1,173,191	2,209,506	980,069
	CWTS.	CWTS.	CWTS.
Flour,	239,591	646,270	463,382
Oatmeal,	2,515	3,808	1,986
Indian Meal,	1		
Total flour and meal entered for consump.	242,107	650,078	465,368

MAIZE, OR INDIAN CORN.

A pressure of important matter in this number has crowded out several articles which we had intended to present to our readers at this time; among others, a continuation of the subject of "Corn trade of Europe," an essay in our February number. We intended to show, even more conclusively than we have already done, that the repeal of the British corn laws would not operate beneficially for the United States. In this view we are confirmed by our friend, Doctor Bartlett, the Editor of the Albion, an able paper published in this city; which, although conducted with every courtesy towards this country, from its name, will be known to advocate British interests. In May, 1842, Doctor Bartlett published, in pamphlet form, a letter to the Right Honorable Baron Ashburton, her Majesty's special minister plenipotentiary to the United States, on the "importance of the Corn and Flour Trade with England, *via the St. Lawrence;* and on the advantages to be derived from introducing MAIZE into Great Britain, as a cheap article of food for the poor and labouring classes." We shall recur to this subject in our next number.

CHASE'S CARD SPINNER.

There would really appear to be no end to American ingenuity. We were aware that the vast improvements which have resulted from it, in the machinery and the mode of spinning cotton and wool, had not only greatly added to the facility and speed with which these great staples of our country are here converted into yarn and cloth, but we know that in this, and in many other arts, even England has profited by the extraordinary genius of our wonder-working mechanicians.

But Mr. Chase has now invented a machine, which may be said to make woollen cloth out of cotton, flax, or hemp, or almost any other fibrious substance. The superiour warmth which is derived from the use of wool as a garment, arises, as is well known, from its being so much better a non-conductor of heat, and not from any other property it possesses, not inherent in a vegetable fibre.

Chase's card spinner is founded upon this principle, and by a very simple process of covering yarn, made of cotton, hemp, or flax, with a coating of wool, gives to such yarn, when woven, all the properties of woollen cloth. Stockings, carpets, blankets, blanketing, and other fabrics for domestic purposes, have thus imparted to them a superiour strength, warmth, and durability. It is, as we have said, very simple, and is, also, durable in its construction; is composed principally of iron, and not liable to be affected by sudden changes in the atmosphere; and, in conjunction with the cotton spinning jenny, now in extensive use on southern plantations, for spinning the refuse cotton into yarn, and with a common loom, this card-spinner will enable the planter to be his own manufacturer, of a warm, comfortable, (so to speak,) woollen cloth for winter clothing for his workmen; or, in those parts of the country where wool is abundant, refuse cotton can be cheaply purchased, and two boys, or other hands, who, from age or other causes, may be incapable of more severe labour, can spin, on two spindles, sufficient yarn to weave from six to eight yards of yard wide cloth per day.

We write understandingly, and assure our readers that the properties of this machine have been so thoroughly and satisfactorily tested, as to leave no manner of doubt that it will prove an invaluable acquisition to the planter and farmer desirous of making their own clothing, at the least possible charge, and by hands who would, in many cases, be idlers.

We understand one of the "two spindle machines" mentioned above, have been recently exhibited at Washington, before many Senators and Members of Congress, who have expressed their great approbation at its performances.

We have been so much pleased and gratified at the evidence exhibited to us, of the advantages of this wonder-working machine, from the samples of its work which we have seen, that we have requested the proprietor to furnish us, for our next number, a plate which has been exhibited to us, and which fully explains the whole process.

We are informed, also, that a large machine with twenty six spindles, upon Mr. Chase's plan, has been for some time in operation in Baltimore, and that it has realized the most sanguine expectations of the proprietor.

Truly, our Southern bretheren will now be obliged to admit that they have derived and are about to derive great advantage from the machine shop, where Whitney's cotton gin was invented to clean their cotton as by enchantment, and from whence Chase's card spinner has come forth, to convert it into woollen cloth as if by magic.

That such of our readers, as may be desirous of further information on this subject, may know where to apply for it, we state that George Law, Esq., of Baltimore, is the proprietor, and that from him they may learn whatever they may further desire of information respecting it.

MONTHLY LIST OF PATENTS,

A List of Patents issued from the 20th of January, to the 20th of February, 1846, inclusive:

To Ebenezer J. Gazzam, of Pittsburgh, Penn., for improvement in Bedstead fastenings. Patented 23rd Jan., 1846.

To Moses Chase, of Baltimore, Maryland, for improvement in Washing Machines. Patented 23rd Jan., 1846.

To Charles Branwhite, of New York city, for improvement in composition for making handles, moulds, &c. Patented 23rd January, 1846.

To William Fosket, of Ware, Mass., for improvement in Machinery for making Hat Bodies. Patented 23rd Jan., 1846.

To Joseph V. Hewes, of Putnam, Indiana, for improvement in the double seamer for working sheet metal. Patented 23rd January, 1846.

To Lathrop S. Bacon, of Le Roy, New York, for improvement in Cooking Stoves. Patented 23rd January, 1846.

To Henry C. Billings, of Trenton, New Jersey, for improvement in Register Plates for Stoves. Patented 28th January, 1846.

To Hiram Seger, of Macon, Georgia, for improvement in Cutting Ladies' Dresses. Patented 28th January, 1846.

To Charles King, of Scipio, New York, for improvement in Washing Machines. Patented 28th Jan., 1846.

To Johan B. Isenring, Canton, of St. Gall, Switzerland, for improvement in Colouring Daguerreotype Plates, (assigned to F. Langenheim, of Philadelphia, Penn.) Patented 30th Jan. 1846.

To Frederick Langenheim, of Philadelphia, Penn., for improvement in colouring Daguerreotype Plates. Patented 30th January, 1846.

To Samuel G. Blackman, of Norwalk, Connecticut, for improvement in Straw Cutters. Patented 10th February, 1846.

To Jeremiah Essex, of Bennington, Vermont, for improvement in the manufacture of Cotton Batting. Patented 10th February, 1846.

To Joseph Laubach, of Harrisburgh, Penn., for improvement in Cooking Stoves. Patented 10th Feb., 1846.

To Israel J. Richardson, of New York city, for improvement in portable horse powers. Patented 10th February, 1846.

To Charles W. Leet, of Vernon, New York, for improvement in Parlour Stoves. Patented 10th February, 1846, and ante-dated 9th of September, 1845.

To John H. Aldrich and Otis C. Foote, of Rushville, New York, for improvement in Washing Machines. Patented 10th February, 1846.

To George W. Eddy, of Waterford, New York, for improvement in hollow oven doors. Patented 10th February, 1846.

To Joseph W. Webb, of Lockport, New York, for improvement in Straw Cutters. Patented 10th February, 1846.

To Arnold Palmer, of Lebanon, New York, for improvement in Weaver's Temples. Patented 10th Feb., 1846.

To Samuel Graves, of Auburn, New

York, for improvement in Cooking Stoves. Patented 10th February, 1846.

To John Tittle, of Johnstown, Pennsylvania, for improvement in Safety Cars for inclined planes. Patented 10th February, 1846.

To Elisha S. Snyder, of Charlestown, Virginia, for improvement in Mills for grinding. Patented 10th Feb., 1846.

To Joseph P. Pirsson, Jun., of New York city, for improvement in condensing steam and feeding steam boilers. Patented 10th February, 1846.

To Israel J. Richardson, of New York city, for improvement in Straw Cutters. Patented 10th February, 1846.

To William J. Jones and Henry C. Smith, of Fairfield, Connecticut, for improvement in Machines for Sowing Grain, &c., broad cast. Patented 20th February, 1846.

To William H. Jennison, of New York city, for improvement in Filters, (assigned to William Kumbell.) Patented 20th February, 1846.

To Benjamin H. Otis, of Dedham, Massachusetts, for improvement in Mortising machines. Patented 20th February, 1846.

To John Shorb, of Canton, Ohio, for improvement in the mode of operating Safety Valves. Patented 20th February, 1846.

To John Drummond, of New York city, for improvement in Candle Moulding. Patented 20th February, 1846.

To Rensselaer D. Granger, of Pittsford, Vermont, for improvement in Cooking Stoves. Patented 20th February, 1846.

To Jonathan Jessop, John Wanbaugh, George W. Ilgenfritz, and James C. Baker, of York, Pennsylvania, for improvement in Machines for Cutting and Grinding Fodder. Patented 20th February, 1846.

DESIGNS PATENTED.

To Albert G. Bristol, of Rochester, New York, for Design for Stoves. Patented 23rd January, 1846, and ante-dated 22nd September, 1845.

STATISTICS.

A Table of Imports and Exports of Gold and Silver, from 1821 *to* 1845, *inclusive; also, the Excess of Imports and Exports in each year, for the same period.*

Years.	Imports.	Exports.	Excess of Imports.	Excess of Expts.
1821,	$8,064,890	$10,478,059		$2,413,169
1822,	3,369,486	10,810,180		7,440.334
1823,	5,097,896	6,372,987		1,275,091
1824,	8,379,835	7,014,552	$1,365,283	
1825,	6,150,765	8,797,055		2,646,290
1826,	6,880,966	4,098,674	2,782,288	753,735
1827,	8,151,130	6,971,306	1,179,824	
1828,	7,489,741	8,243,476		
1829,	7,403,612	4,924,020	2,479,592	
1830,	8,155,964	1,241,622	6,914,342	
1831,	7,305,945	9,014,931		1,708,988
1832,	5,907,504	5,656,540	250,964	
1833,	7,070,368	2,244,859	4,825,509	
1834,	17,911,632	1,676,258	16,235,374	
1835,	13,131,447	6,477,775	6,653,672	
1836,	13,400,881	4,324,336	9,076,545	
1837,	10,516,414	4,692,730	5,823,684	
1838,	17,447,116	3,508,047	14,239,070	
1839,	5,574,263	8,775,443		3,202,180
1840,	8,882,813	8,417,014	465,799	
1841,	4,988,633	7.287,846		2,299,213
1842,	4,087,016	3,632,785	454,231	
1843,*	22,320,335	1,413,352	20,906,983	
1844,	5,830,429	5,454,215	386,214	
1845,	4,070.242	8,606,495		4,736,253

* The year 1843, owing to a change in the commencement of the commercial year, consisted of only nine months.

A Table of Imports and Exports of the United States, from the year 1791 *to* 1845, *inclusive—together with the Excess of Imports or Exports for each year, and the Net Revenue accruing from our Imports during the same period:*

Year.	Imports.	Exports.	Excess of Impts.	Excess of Expts.	Net Revenue.
1791,	$52,000,000	$19,012,041	$32,987,959	....	$4,399,473
1792,	31,500,000	20,753,098	10,746,902	....	3,443,070
1793,	31,100,000	25,109,572	4,990,428	....	4,255,306
1794,	34,600,000	33,026,233	1,573,767	....	4,801,065
1795,	69,756,268	47,989,472	21,766,796	....	5,588,461
1796,	81,436,164	67,064,097	14,372,067	....	6,567,987
1797,	75,379,406	56,850,206	18,529,200	....	7,549,649
1798,	68,551,700	61,527,097	7,024,603	....	7,106,061
1799,	79,068,148	78,665,522	402,626	....	6,610,449
1800,	91,252.768	70,971,780	280,988	....	8,080,932
1801.	111,363,511	94,115,225	17,247,586	....	10,750,779
1802,	76,333,333	72,483,160	3,850,173	....	12,438,235
1803,	64,666,666	55,800,033	8,866,633	....	10,479,417
1804,	85,000,000	77,699,074	7,300,926	....	11,098,565
1805,	120,000,000	95,566,021	24,433,979	....	12,936,487
1806,	129,000,000	101,536,963	27,463,037	....	14,667,698
1807,	138,000,000	108,343,150	29,656,850	....	15,845,521
1808,	56,990,000	22,430,960	34,559,040	....	16,363,550
1809,	59,400,000	52,203,231	7,196,769	....	7,296,020
1810,	85,400,000	66,757,974	18,642,026	....	8,583,309
1811,	53,400,000	61,316,831	....	7,916,831	13,313,222
1812,	77,030,000	38,527,236	38,502,764	....	8,958,777
1813,	22,005,000	27,855,997	....	5,850,997	13,224,623
1814,	12,965,000	6,927,441	6,037,553	....	5,998,772
1815,	113,041,274	52,557,753	60,483,521	....	7,282,942
1816,	147,103,000	81,920,452	65,182,548	....	36,306,874
1817,	99,250,000	87,671,569	11,578,431	....	26,283,348
1818,	121,750,000	93,281,133	28,468,867	....	17,176,385
1819,	87,125,000	70,142,521	16,982,479	....	20,283,608
1820,	74,450,000	69,691,669	4,758,331	....	15,005,612
1821,	62,585,724	64,974,382	....	2,389,658	15,155,418
1822,	82,241,541	72,160,281	10,081,260	....	21,219,116
1823,	77,579,267	74,699,030	2,880,237	....	17,717,830
1824,	80,549,007	75,986,657	4,562,350	....	20,2[illegible]5,059
1825,	96,340,075	99,535,388	....	3,195,313	25,387,904
1826,	84,974,477	77,595,322	7,379,155	....	18,997,478
1827,	79,484,068	82,324,827	....	2,840,759	22,378,046
1828,	88,509,824	72,264,686	16,245,138	....	24,890,337
1829,	74,492,227	72,358,671	2,133,856	....	22,296,512
1830,	70,876,920	73,849,508	....	2,972,588	22,833,573
1831,	103,191,124	81,310,583	21,880,541	....	30,312,851
1832,	101,029,266	87,176,943	3,852,323	....	21,488,890
1833,	108,181,311	90,140,433	18,040,878	....	14,797,782
1834,	126,521,332	104,336,972	22,184,360	....	13,458,111
1835,	149,895,742	121,693,577	28,202,165	....	21,552,272
1836,	189,980,035	128,663,040	61,316,995	....	26,325,839
1837,	140,989,217	117,419,376	23,469,841	....	13,315,129
1838,	113,717,404	108,486,616	5,230,788	....	15,373,238
1839,	162,092,132	121,028,416	41,063,716	....	20,560,439
1840,	107,141,519	132,085,946	....	24,944,427	10,159,339
1841,	127,946,477	121,851,803	6,094,674	....	15,516,589
1842,	100,162,087	104,691,534	....	4,529,447	12,780,173
1843,*	64,763,799	84,346,480	....	19,582,681	6,132,272
1844,	108,435,035	111,200,046	....	2,715,001	26,183,570
1845,	117,254,564	114,646,606	....	2,607,958	27,528,112

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* The commercial year of 1843 consisted of only nine months, and the fiscal year of only six months. This will account for the diminished imports and exports of that year. It is also worthy of remark, that the fiscal year 1843 not only consisted of six months, but of that half of the year when the importations are generally the least—and hence the great falling off of the revenue. The facts above stated arose from the change of the commercial and fiscal year.

By the foregoing table it will be seen that the balance of trade, which had been so heavily against us, under the descending scale of the Compromise Act, was, by the tariff of 1842, turned in our favour. One of the great causes why the balance of trade was in our favour, in 1840, was owing to the shortness of the crops in Europe, which enabled us to send abroad a quantity of wheat and flour much larger than usual.

IRON AND COPPER TRADE OF EUROPE.

Annexed will be found our usual extracts, taken from the last dates of the Miner's Journal, with a view to keep those concerned in the iron trade here, well informed of what is going on on the other side of the water.

It will be seen, the greatest activity prevails there ; and we ask particular notice to the article in which it is noticed that Sir Robert Peel has taken good care not to meddle with foreign ores, a reduction of the duty on which would interfere with English mining industry. We shall take occasion, in our next, to show that there are a great many other articles which Sir Robert has passed over in the same way; indeed, we have not had time, since the arrival of the news by the Cambria, to give that attention to the new propositions on the tariff, which they require at our hands. In our next we shall show that Sir Robert Peel's and Mr. Walker's views, both, only can benefit British interests; and we congratulate the latter upon the laurels he has reaped in the British House of Lords, which, however, we should think would not be considered as very strong proof that his proposed legislation would redound much to the interest of the U. States.

ENGLISH COPPER MINES.

In the statistical articles in our journals, for the past two weeks, we gave a statement of the produce of our Home and Foreign. Mines, as, also, the standard for the twelve months, with the results. As such, however, in the aggregate, do not afford that information which our readers may naturally desire to acquire, with reference not only to those mines in which they may be interested, but also to the comparison which may be drawn, as relates to the produce of foreign mines, we have been induced to enumerate some few, showing the average prices of ore, both at home and abroad, whereby a conclusion may be arrived at by those interested. The following are the principal mines quoted in the Cornwall Ticketing Papers:

Mines.	Tons.	Amount.			Aver. Price.		
Bedford United,	1187	£8037	6	6	£6	15	3
Barrier,	228	1292	3	6	5	3	3
Botallack,	1384	10363	6	6	7	9	6
Creeg Braws,	546	2902	7	0	5	6	3
Camborne Vean,	2751	13873	2	0	5	0	6
Consolidated,	5754	34096	17	6	5	18	6
Consols,	3044	17049	15	6	5	10	6
Cook's Kitchen,	502	1522	8	6	3	0	6
Carn Brea,	6674	39432	14	0	5	19	6
Dolcoath,	3504	16996	16	6	4	17	0
East Pool,	929	5430	4	6	5	16	6
East Wheal Crofty,	6173	36302	14	0	5	17	6
Fowey Consols,	8976	48933	0	6	5	9	0
Godolphin,	852	7715	5	0	9	1	1
Total carried forward,	42,504	£243948	1	6	£5	14	9

Mines.	Tons.	Amount.			Avar. Price.		
Amount bro't forward,	42504	£248948	1	6	£5	14	9
Grambler and St. Aubyn,	1494	8201	14	0	5	9	9
Hallenbeagle,	2879	10478	18	6	3	12	9
Holmbush,	1887	14957	5	6	7	18	6
Llanivet Consols,	1125	6081	14	6	5	8	1
Levant,	1088	7154	19	0	6	11	6
North Downs,	306	1731	0	6	5	13	1
North Roskear,	6430	40955	10	6	6	7	3
Pensthruthal,	405	3344	15	0	8	5	1
Par Consols,	5449	29594	9	0	5	8	6
Perran St. George,	1665	7322	16	6	4	7	9
Poldice,	2485	10889	10	6	4	7	6
Providence,	639	3602	2	9	5	12	9
South Wheal Basset,	3390	19961	16	0	5	17	9
South Caradon,	4631	27319	9	6	5	17	9
South Towan,	2267	9652	14	6	4	5	1
South Roskear,	1464	8738	9	6	5	12	6
Treleigh Consols,	1637	9269	15	0	5	1	0
Tresavean,	6433	23559	15	6	3	13	1
Trethellan,	2862	11013	5	6	3	16	11
Tretcil,	658	3499	15	6	5	6	3
Treviskey,	767	6435	18	6	8	7	9
Tincroft,	5644	30527	10	6	5	8	3
Trenow Consols,	2306	20365	14	0	8	16	6
Tresavean Barrier,	646	4762	16	6	7	7	6
United Hills,	3017	12938	12	6	4	5	6
United Mines,	14374	74908	1	6	5	4	3
West Caradon,	4457	33273	1	0	7	9	3
Wheal Jewel,	1476	7892	17	0	5	6	11
Wheal Maria,	11288	100971	15	0	8	18	6
West Trethellan,	295	1067	14	0	3	12	3
Wheal Gorland,	366	1652	8	6	4	10	3
Wheal Ellen,	714	4373	0	6	6	2	3
West Wheal Treasury,	267	1274	7	0	4	15	3
Wheal Trenwith,	171	1131	17	6	6	12	3
Wheal Buller,	907	3813	19	6	4	4	0
Wheal Providence,	2442	13783	17	6	5	12	10
Wheal Sisters,	577	2595	6	0	4	9	11
Wheal Trewavas,	883	4855	12	0	5	9	11
Wheal Prosper,	5105	24946	0	0	4	17	6
Wheal Brewer,	1316	6266	7	6	4	15	3
Wheal Darlington,	649	2397	8	6	3	13	9
Wheal Seaton,	1590	8636	0	0	5	8	6
Wheal Virgin,	655	2964	5	6	4	10	6
Wheal Prudence,	513	1477	4	0	2	17	3
West Wheal Jewel,	1749	7429	8	6	4	4	11
Wheal Harriet,	689	2941	10	6	4	5	3
Wheal Clifford,	348	2254	0	6	6	9	6
Wheal Maiden,	384	1824	18	6	4	15	0
Wheal Vyvyan,	378	1462	18	6	3	17	3
Total,	155,671	£899,502	0	3	£5	15	6

Having thus selected some of the principal mines, as given in the Cornish Ticketing Papers, we now take the sales at Swansea; and, first, the produce of some two or three Irish mines, which, it will be seen, give even a higher price than those of Cornwall, viz.:

Mines.	Tons.	Amount			Aver. Price.		
Berehaven,	5845	£45766	15	6	£7	16	6
Knockmahon,	6948	46021	3	0	6	12	6
Lackamore,	119	1031	0	0	8	13	6
Coshreen,	125	2275	2	0	18	4	0
Total,	13,037	£95,094	0	6	£7	5	10

These four mines, it will be seen, give an average of £7 5s. 10d. per ton, and which we have separated from those in the Wicklow district, where the produce of sulphur ore forms a large portion of the returns, and the copper ore from which is, in a great measure, impregnated with that product. Indeed, some 4,000 to 5,000 tons per month, if we mistake not, were raised and shipped at the time when sulphur ores commanded a price of from 25s. to 32s. per ton, while an advance in price was obtained upon those containing 1 to 2 per cent. of copper. It may further be observed, with reference to Connorree—the average of which is only about £5 per ton, that such price is made by an admixture of precipitate obtained from the deposit on iron in the pits at surface, into which the water raised from the mine passes. The following are the returns:

Mines.	Tons.	Amount.	Aver. Price.
Ballymurtagh,	2773	£10261 9 6	£3 14 0
Cronebane,	1448	7106 5 0	4 18 1
Tigrony,	577	2940 15 0	5 1 11
Connorree,	410	2069 9 6	5 0 11
Total,	5,208	£22,397 19 0	£4 6 0

Thus giving an average for the mines of Ireland, including those before cited, of £6 8s. 9d. per ton.

We now come to the ores imported from foreign climes:

Mines.	Tons.	Amount.	Aver. Price.
Cobre,	22741	£261453 18 0	£11 9 1
Santiago,	7930	115197 19 6	14 10 6
Chili,	3786	112347 0 6	29 13 6
Cuba,	5591	78072 8 0	13 18 3
San Jose Cobre,	2931	36786 17 0	12 11 9
Copiapo,	658	12307 8 0	18 14 0
Australia,	582	10397 0 6	17 17 3
Valparaiso,	283	4414 11 0	15 11 11
Pennsylvania,	372	4078 17 0	10 19 3
Total,	44,874	£635,055 19 5	£11 18 5

In our last number we gave the average price of ores sold at Ticketing, in Cornwall, taking the entire quantities from the several mines at £5 13s. 6d. per ton, while those sold at Swansea, embracing the foreign and Irish, with some one or two parcels of Welsh ores, gave £11 5s. per ton, or an average of £7 7s. 6d., the relative proportions being—

Mines.	Tons.	Amount.	Aver. Price
Cornwall,	162587	£919938 6 0	£5 13 6
Swansea,	67167	779367 11 6	11 5 0

We have now given a perfect view of the mineral statistics, with reference to the produce of our copper mines at home and abroad, so as to enable our readers to arrive at a conclusion as to their relative produce, while we shall feel indebted to correspondents to correct any errours into which we may, in the multitude of figures, have unintentionally or inadvertently fallen.

We briefly noticed in our columns of last week, the fluctuations which have taken place in the price of metals during the past twelve months, and have now to direct attention to the accompanying statement, showing more particularly the rise or decline at the several periods denoted in our table of quarterly prices—not adverting to the difference which may have arisen in the intervals.

While treating on this subject, it may be well to note the various alterations which have attended the iron trade; and, in the present instance, shall confine our quotations to the price of bars at Newport during, nearly, the past quarter of a century. From the early part of June, 1822, to June, 1824, we find the extreme fluctuation to be £7 per ton and £9 per ton; in the January following the price was, however, advanced to £14 per ton, although again, in the same year, we find it to have declined to £10 per ton—showing so large a difference, in so limited a period as to afford conclusive evidence that the market was not in a healthy state. In 1826, and 1827, the highest quotation was £9 per ton, the lowest £8 per ton; in 1828, it had again fallen to £7 per ton; in 1829, to £6 per ton; in 1830, to £5 10s.; and, again, in 1831, to £5; while in 1832, the price had dropped to £4 15s. In the latter part of 1833, prices again rallied, and £7 was the quotation; another drop, however, took place in the succeeding year, and, in 1835, we again find the price had fallen to £5 15s., but advanced full £2 per ton before its close. In the succeeding year, 1836, we find again another start—bars having been sold at £11 per ton; in 1887, within twelve months, the price was again quoted at £6, and again an advance to £9 taking place within some two or three months afterwards. The years 1838, and 1839, show the only fluctuations of from £9 to £10; but in 1840, another reduction took place —the price in July of that year being quoted at £7 10s. In 1841, it had again further dropped to £5 15s.; in 1842, to £5; and again, in 1843, to £4; while in 1844, the highest price, we believe, quoted is £6. In 1845, bars rose again to £10, although a trifling decline has since taken place. Referring to the accompanying table as to the relative prices during the 12 months, while our weekly reports on the state of the metal market will best convey information to those anxious of entering into more minute detail, we must needs defer our remarks on other metals until another occasion, when we hope to acquire information of a like nature to that now submitted.

PRICE OF METALS FOR THE LAST TWELVE MONTHS.

	Jan. 1.	April 1.	July 1.	October 1.	Dec. 31.
IRON,..Bar, in Wales,.....Ton	£6 0 0	£9 15 0	£7 15 0	£8 15 0	£9 0 0
" London,.......	6 10 0	10 10 0	8 15 0	9 10 0	10 0 0
Nail Rods,...........	7 5 0	11 5 0	9 10 0	10 0 0	10 10 0
Hoop, (Stafford'sh.)...	8 10 0	13 10 0	10 15 0	11 10 0	11 10 0
Sheet, "	9 10 0	14 10 0	12 0 0	12 10 0	12 10 0
Bars, "	8 0 0	13 0 0	11 0 0	10 10 0	11 0 0
Scotch Pig, (Clyde)...	3 0 0	5 10 0	3 7 6	4 10 0	4 0 0
Railway bars,.........	7 5 0	12 0 0	10 0 0	11 10 0	11 10 0
COPPER.—Tile,..............	83 0 0	73 0 0	87 10 0	87 10 0	92 0 0
Sheet, ...lb.	0 0 9½	0 0 9½	0 0 10	0 0 10	0 0 10½
TIN....Blocks, com.......cwt.	71s.	80s.	90s.	90s.	103s.
Banca, ...	65s.	73s.	85s.	88s.	93s.
Plates, Charcoal, I. X ,......	36s.	43s.	40s.	38s.	40s.
Coke, I. X., ...	31s.	33s.	34s.	33s.	35s.
LEAD...Sheet,...............	17 10 0	18 5 0	20 5 0	20 0 0	20 0 0
Pig, common,.........	16 10 0	17 10 0	19 5 0	18 15 0	19 0 0
SPELTER, Cake,.............	22 15 0	22 0 0	24 0 0	23 15 0	21 0 0
ZINC,..Sheet,...............	30 0 0	30 0 0	30 0 0	30 0 0	30 0 0
QUICKSILVER,...............	0 4 6	0 4 6	0 4 6	0 4 6	0 4 6

The Premier having submitted his proposed measure, as affects the further alteration in the tariff, in connection with the reduction in the duty on the importation of corn, we are well pleased to find, that it is not contemplated to make any change in the import duty of foreign ores, although manufactured metals come under the proposed amended tariff. This, however, will not affect our mines, which have been too grievously injured by the "Peel Tariff" of former days, as we need have no apprehension of the introduction of tin or copper in a manufactured state. It may be said, that the price of tin has advanced, and copper maintained the standard, since the tariff, as at present established, was introduced; but the serious question arises—one of which we have no hesitation in saying the parties raising are perfectly innocent—is the same quantity of copper ore and tin raised in Cornwall, and are the prices paid to the miner the same as antecedent to the passing of the tariff? We believe not—but, as we purpose next week to enter into the question with "facts and figures," it is sufficient for our purpose, on the present occasion, simply to advert to the omission of any reduction on the introduction of foreign ores.

LATEST CURRENT PRICES OF METALS,

London, January 30, 1846.

	£	s.	£	s.	d.		£	s.	£	s.	d.
Iron—Bar *a*, Wales...ton	0	0—	9	0	0	*Copper*—Ord. sheets.lb.	0	0—	0	0	10½
" London.....	9	15—	10	0	0	" bottoms..	0	0—	0	0	11½
Nail rods, "	10	10—	10	15	0	*Tin*—Com.blocks*g*, cwt.	0	0—	5	0	0
Hoop,(Staf.)"	11	10—	12	0	0	" bars........	0	0—	5	1	6
Sheet, " "	0	0—	13	0	0	Refined...........	0	0—	5	5	0
Bars, " "	0	0—	11	0	0	Straits*h*...........	0	0—	4	8	0
Welsh coal-blast foundry pig... } ..	0	0—	5	10	0	Banca.............	0	0—	4	10	0
						Tin Plates—Ch. IC*i*,bx.	1	13—	1	14	0
Scotch pig *b*, Clyde...	0	0—	4	0	0	" IX....	1	19—	2	0	0
Rails...............	0	0—	12	0	0	Coke, IC.........	1	8—	1	9	0
Russian, CCND *c*....	0	0—	15	0	0	" IX.........	1	14—	1	15	0
" PSI	0	0—	16	0	0	*Lead*—Sheet *k*......ton	0	0—	20	5	0
" Gourieff.....	0	0—	14	10	0	Pig refined........	0	0—	21	10	0
" Archangel...	0	0—	13	12	6	" common......	0	0—	19	5	0
Swedish *d*,on the spot.	11	10—	12	0	0	" Spanish, in bnd	17	15—	18	0	0
" Steel, fagt...	0	0—	16	10	0	" American	0	0—	17	15	0
" " kegs *e*.	0	0—	15	5	0	*Spelter*—Cake *l*........	20	0—	20	5	0
Copper—Tile *f*.....	0	0—	92	0	0	*Zinc*—Sheet *m*, export*.	0	0—	30	0	0
Tough cake.........	0	0—	93	0	0	*Quicksilver n*.......lb.	0	0—	9	4	6
Best selected........	0	0—	96	0	0	*Refined Metal*......ton	0	0—	0	——	

a Discount 2½ per cent.
b Nett cash.
c Discount 2½ per cent.
d Do. 2½ do.
e In kegs ½ and ⅝ inch.
f Discount 3 per cent.
g Do. 2½ do.
h Nett cash in bond.
i Discount 8 per cent.
k Do. 2½ do.
l Nett cash.
m Discount 1½ per cent.
n Do. 1¼ do.
* For home use it is £32 per ton.

Communicated by Messrs. Whitcomb and Barton, Old Broad-street.

English iron continues firm at last week's prices. Very few transactions have taken place in Scotch pig iron; the price may now be quoted at 77s. 6d. cash, and 82s. 6d. for time. Welsh and Staffordshire pig iron steady, but the demand very limited at present. Foreign iron has been in considerable request, and higher rates paid. Foreign steel dull. English copper maintains its prices, and the trade steady for home use. English lead much better, and good business doing. English tin has fallen £3 per ton, and it is expected yet lower prices will have to be submitted to. Foreign tin may also be bought on easier terms. Tin plates rather dull of sale. In other metals no alteration.

About 150 tons of spelter on the spot were sold at £19 17s. 6d. per ton. Holders are now asking £20. For spring shipment there are buyers at £20. English bar iron has undergone no alteration. Welsh pig iron has been in fair demand at quotations. For Scotch pig iron there are sellers at 80s., at which price business was done to-day. Swedish iron and steel are little sought after at present prices. English copper, tin, and lead continue firm, but the transactions are not very heavy. Banca and Straits tin are looking firmer.

THE IRON TRADE—ITS PRESENT STATE AND PROSPECTS.

To the Editor of the Mining Journal.

Sir,—In taking a review of the iron trade for the past twelve months, we are enabled to congratulate both makers and dealers on its present healthy position, as compared with many preceding years. Throughout this year the range of prices has been gradually upward, and, though this tendency was checked for a time in the spring, yet a glance at our present quotations will show a considerable rise above those in the early part of the year, while for the past three months, especially, the prices named at the last quarterly meeting of iron masters have been well sustained, and the business done has been of a sound and healthy description. We cannot doubt that the present quotations will be sustained by a real and *bona fide* demand. The expectations that were excited in the early part of the year by the wants that would be felt for railway purposes were perfectly just. The errour, if there was one, arose from *too early* an anticipation of the demand, and thus an appearance of instability was given for a time to the rise in prices. The evil, however, was not altogether unmixed, since the attention of the iron masters was more fully drawn to the subject, and every exertion has been made by them to meet the coming demand, while they have been able at the same time to raise their price. That they have been justified in this step is fully borne out by the fact, that in the midst of an unparalleled depression of trade for the past three months—in the face of falling markets of all kinds of produce—in an anticipated famine and war with the United States—and last not least, with a portentous political crisis hanging over the nation—the price of iron has still kept its ground, and closes the year with increased firmness. Under these circumstances we do not hesitate to express our convictions that the next year will be a very favourable one for the iron trade. The causes to which we have alluded, as tending to depress it, have all but disappeared—public confidence is being restored, and while we know not at present any serious obstacle to an improvement in this important branch of our trade—the changes in our fiscal system, which we may expect when Parliament meets, favourable to trade, and the probability of an alteration in the duties on iron, both in France and the United States, are all causes calculated to increase the demand, and, consequently, the prices of all descriptions of iron; while, in addition to the immense home consumption, the spring demand will soon begin to show itself for export to foreign countries, and we have every reason to believe that the demand will be much greater to the continent this year than it was last. Should this be the case, we may expect to see Scotch pig iron much higher in price than it has ruled for some time past. This being the only description of iron in which much speculation occurs, the depression which has fallen on all other branches of commerce has been felt here—aided, too, as it has been, by interested parties, who have sold largely for a fall; and who, having yet to supply themselves with the iron to fulfil their bargains, have spared no means to depress the market through the instrumentality of newspaper paragraphs, containing most exaggerated statements, calculated to influence uninformed individuals at a distance. Reports of immense stocks, which the trade know to be untrue, as compared with preceding years, and of failures in Liverpool in the iron trade, which we now contradict, (none having taken place,) are only calculated to have a momentary influence, while the source from which they originate becomes a byword of distrust among those acquainted with the circumstances alluded to. With a prosperous trade in other articles of consumption, we have no fears for iron, and we venture to predict, ere very long, a still further rise in prices of all descriptions.

Hughes, Cowie & Co.

THE SCOTCH IRON TRADE.

There appears to be a continual increase of new iron works. We have just heard of several works about to be erected, but four certain—viz: one in the parish of Lesmahago, another near Wilsontown ironworks, a third at Dalmellington, and a fourth near Kilmarnock—each of them will probably commence with four blast furnaces. It may be interesting to estimate the production when the projected works are in full operation. There are in blast, at present, ninety-one furnaces, and it is expected that twenty-five additional ones will be in blast in three months. Now, with the several new furnaces above mentioned, there will be in blast, next year, no fewer than one hundred and thirty-two furnaces. These furnaces will produce the enormous quantity of seventeen thousand tons weekly, or eight hundred and eighty-four thousand tons annually, which, with the English production of one million two hundred thousand, will give a total produce of two millions of tons of pig iron annually. So large and increasing a production accounts for the great accumulation of the stock of pig iron, (the stock in Glasgow is estimated at upwards of two hundred and fifty thousand tons,) notwithstanding the extraordinary demand made for this article for the purposes of railway companies. There is a singular feature in the Scotch iron trade not generally known, but which must be rectified before the trade be put upon a secure basis. We allude to the fact, that, although the rails now universally used are made of malleable iron, there are, in Scotland, only sufficient malleable works to convert the produce of fifteen furnaces into that description of iron. The Scotch iron masters are, also, shut out from the benefit of the numerous English malleable ironworks, which may be said to be supplied with pig iron of their own manufacture. The total quantity of Scotch pig iron taken to England, and manufactured there, is so exceedingly trifling, that it is not equal to the produce of more than a very few of our blast furnaces. The late high prices, we fear, will be found to have had a most injurious effect upon the trade, both by stimulating the production to an enormous extent, and by cutting off the export of pig iron; for, under the new duties imposed by the Zollverein, foreigners cannot afford to take our pig iron except at low prices. And, when it is remembered that in 1842, (the last year in which the continental exports were considerable,) the amount of pig iron exported from Glasgow alone was 70,000 tons, it will be seen how important it is to cultivate this branch of the trade; and this can only be effected by keeping prices moderate. It is a painful fact, that, since 1842, the exportation of pig iron has all but ceased. Under these circumstances, we are at a loss to conceive how the surplus iron is to be disposed of. Should the price fall, of course part will be exported; but until there has been erected as many malleable ironworks as there are pig ironworks, the trade, we fear, will suffer great depression in consequence of the constant accumulation of stock. On account of the many railways in course of formation or projection, there must be a great demand for malleable iron; we are, therefore, surprised that this branch of the trade has hitherto escaped the attention of our capitalists.

A GLANCE AT THE OLD WORLD.

The Cambria has brought us our usual files of newspapers and periodicals. We proceed to give, after our usual manner, a summary of the most interesting scientific and literary news of the month preceding her departure from England.

SCIENTIFIC.

We find, in the Edinburgh Philosophic Journal, a valuable memoir of the younger Saussure, an eminent natural philosopher, well known for his geological surveys of the Alps, and for having become the rival of his father, for the honours awarded to science, after he had in fact been his pupil. The description of the ascent of these persons, together, to the top of Mount Blanc, and the results thenceforward of their companionship in travel, stand out beautifully as illustrative of their character. We hope the interesting memoir of the Saussures, father and son, written by Professor Macaire, may fall into the hands of some of our journalists, and be made the subject of appropriate comment.

We find in the same number a valuable article on the Ethnography of Russian America, by R. G. Latham. We find in the introductory remarks, a sort of description of the Russian Possessions in America. "The line of demarcation," says the writer, "is rather a political than a natural one. From Mount St. Elias to the southernmost extremity of Prince of Wales' Island, the territory in question consists of a strip of seacoast islands, with the British Possessions of New Norfolk, and New Hanover at the back, whilst from Mt. St. Elias northward, as far as the Arctic sea, the line of division is imaginary, coinciding with 141 W. lon." The description of the different ethnological groups are highly interesting. The author states one curious fact—that he has found Esquimaux words in five different languages, among which are the Corean and Japanese.

In the same journal we have a valuable paper, containing the scientific observations made by Dr. Day, while on his passage from Barbadoes to

England, in the steamer Clyde. He furnishes valuable tables of the temperature of the air, and surface water of the ocean, on the route traversed. One practical deduction made by him is this, that the benefits derived by consumptive persons from sea voyages are to be attributed, as he supposes, from their lowering and sedative effects, rather than the sti mulating and exciting, as is generally supposed.

We have another paper following, from the pen of Captain Newbold, on the temperature of intertropical springs and rivers. In this is mentioned a plan of Boussingault, to ascertain the temperature of tropical countries, which is, to sink a thermometer one foot below the surface of the ground, which everywhere gives a certain result, especially in India.

Succeeding this article is one of Mr. Nasmyth, on the human mouth, which is admirably treated, and of which we may form some slight idea from one point, which he discusses with great ability—" The duties of the mouth in civilized life."

We have next a fine memoir from Professor Low, of the University of Edinburgh, on the classes and breeds of British horses, from the time of Julius Cæsar to the present day. Among the curious facts stated by him is this—that in the west of Ireland, in the Connemara district of Galway, there is a large number of horses, almost running wild through the bogs, which are said to be descended from some that were cast on shore in 1588, from the wrecked ships belonging to the Spanish Armada. They are from 12 to 14 hands high, of a chesnut colour, delicate in their limbs, and possess the head characteristics of the Spanish horses. Mr. Low calls the attention of the gentlemen of Ireland to this interesting fact. He says, they are hardy, surefooted, and retain the amble of the Spanish jennet. Any one may select an animal, if he will but hunt for him in the bogs, where he is easily haltered.

We find in this number of the magazine a curious account of a torrent of mud, which broke out last year in the plain of the river Lagunilla, in New Grenada, at the time of an earthquake. An immense flood of liquid clay pursued its rapid course along this plain, on both sides of the river, carrying away trees of the tallest stature like straw, overwhelming houses, cottages, and people, of whom one thousand were buried alive. Six square leagues were inundated, and the capital destroyed was over half a million of dollars.

The photographic camera has been successfully applied by Henry Collen, Esq., to the purpose of Meteorological Registration.

A patent has been taken out in England by Mr. Pellatt, a glass manufacturer, for various improvements in its manufacture. He now uses, as a constituent of its composition, the vitrified scoriæ, or slags, produced in the ordinary process of smelting copper ore, and obtained at copper. smelting works. He says, " We mix in the proportion of 100 lbs. weight of the ordinary copper slag to 50 lbs. of the common vitreous sand, such as is used in common bottle glass manufacture, with 40 lbs. of the alkaline matter called soap-maker's waste, and 40 lbs. of refuse lime from gas works, 5 lbs. of common red clay, 3 lbs. of common rock salt, with such proportion of broken green glass bottles as may be convenient.

Another of his improvements relates to moulding and rolling glass into ornamental panes, sheets, or curved pieces, whereof one side of each piece may be an ornamental pattern, or device in relief, or in hollow, that pattern being coloured, (or partly in relief and partly in hollow, and coloured,) and the other side of each such piece will be a comparatively even and smooth flat surface, if intended for windows, or of a comparatively even and smooth spherical surface, if intended for sky-lights; possessing, indeed, every variety of form and colour, uniform, or in tints, or patches, and permitting the coloured parts to be detached at pleasure. Such of our readers as are interested in this manufacture, will find a full account of the plan of Mr. Pellatt in the Repertory of Inventions for February.

We notice that the invention of Mr. McCarty, to project cannon balls by the application of mechanical power, and which he has succeeded in doing from a twelve-pounder at Brooklyn, is attracting some attention in England. If our Government do not take care, this gun may be first used against us.

A large petrified forest has been discovered near Cairo, presenting very interesting features to the eye of the geologist. A particular account of it has been given by Dr. Buist to the Literary Society of St. Andrews. In explaining the peculiarities of these, Dr. Buist stated that few things were more remarkable—few less noticed (considering how worthy it was of examination)—than this petrified forest near Cairo. From the city he proceeded, by the Caliphs' Tombs, to the southeast. Passing for five miles through an arid valley, through which a river torrent appeared to have flowed, skirted on both sides by low, brown, rocky ridges, the traveller turns suddenly off to the right, and beyond the first range of sand hills finds, spreading as far as the eye can reach, a vast expanse of rolling hillocks, covered with prostrate trees. At first sight these wear exactly the aspect of rotten wood dug out from a Scottish or Irish peat-bog. The colour and the amount of decay seem the same. They are lying in all positions and directions on the surface of the burning sand—some forty or fifty feet in length, and one or two feet in thickness; not continuous or entire, but in a line broken across, left in their places like sawn trunks. On touching them, instead of proving mouldering and decayed, they turn out to be hard and sharp as flints. They ring like cast-iron, strike fire with steel, and scratch glass. The sap-vessels and medullary rays—the very bark and marks of worms and insects, and even the spiral vessels—remain entire; the minutest fibres of the vegetable structure are discernible by the microscope. Here you have the carbon—the most indestructible matter known to us—entirely withdrawn, and substituted in its place a mass of silica—a matter insoluble by any ordinary agent, and at any common heat. Yet so tranquilly has the exchange been accomplished, that not one atom has been disturbed; the finest tissues remain entire; the most delicate arrangements uninterfered with. The limits of the petrified forest are unknown: it probably extends over an area of many hundreds, perhaps thousands, of miles. It has never been described with any care, and, extraordinary as it is, has excited very little attention. The trees are scattered loosely, and at intervals, over the desert, all the way from Cairo to Suez, a distance of 86 miles. No theory of their silicification, or their appearance where they are found, has ever been attempted.

Professor Faraday has succeeded in producing the rotation of a ray of light by magnetic force. In conducting his experiments before the Royal Institution, he used an electro-magnet of immense size and power. The magnet used was a half link of the former East India moorings, surrounded by several coils of thick copper wire, and the source of electric power was Grove's battery, about twenty cells of which were employed on this night. To give an idea of the force of this electro-magnet, Professor Faraday mentioned that once, while he was at work in the laboratory, an iron candlestick, which happened to be standing on the table near its poles, instantly flew to them, attracted with such violence as to displace or break every thing in its way. The great experiment was then successfully tried.

A valuable paper has been published by Dr. Gay, on the duration of life among the rich and aristocratic families of England. The results bear directly upon the system of life assurance, and are briefly these: 1. The duration of life among the higher classes has varied greatly at different periods. It was a minimum in persons born during the 14th century, and a maximum in those born during the 16th century, and it was nearly equal in those born during the 15th and first half of the 18th centuries. From the 16th century (the period of the maximum) it gradually fell till the latter half of the 17th century, since which period it has again increased, and is still probably improving. 2. The duration of life among the upper classes varies with their rank, being lowest in the highest, and highest in the lowest rank. Beginning with the class which has the shortest average duration of life, the several classes will be found to stand in the following order: Kings; members of royal houses, males; members of royal houses, females; peers; successors to title; male members of the families of the peerage and baronetage; members of the families of the gentry; professional men, (chiefly clergymen;) females of the upper classes. 3. The expectation of life among females of the upper classes is lower than that of males when young adults are included, but higher when the comparison is restricted to more advanced ages. 4. The duration of life among the higher classes of both sexes falls short of that for the whole of England and Wales.

We have read with some interest a short account of the Island of Arguia, on the western coast of Africa. The island produces no wood but a small shrub, yielding a caustic juice, applied medicinally by the natives. Fuel is brought to the island from a place fifty miles in the interiour of the continent. Water is abundant and excellent, though it has the appearance of milk. Two fairs are held annually on the island, in June and December; many strangers from a distance frequent them, bringing for barter necklaces, beads, cloths, and tobacco, for which they receive fish and oil. The inhabitants are about sixty in number, including women and children: their only food is fish and fish-oil; they have neither bread nor vegetables, except a small portion of rice, which is reserved for the sick. These people are remarkably affectionate to their children, and seldom quarrel among themselves. They are strict Mohammedans in all things but their ablutions, which they neglect. The people are tall and well-proportioned, and their dress simple. They go armed with musket, dagger, and cimetar. These pirates possess six boats, including those captured from the British. The only quadrupeds on the island, exclusive of dogs and cats, are white rats. The heat is very great, but the climate healthy.

"The railroad between Venice and Vicenza, which passes over the magnificent bridge thrown across the Lagunes, and the three other bridges over the rivers Tessina, Bochigliere, and Retrone, and through two tunnels near Vicenza, was opened on the 4th December. The departure took place from Venice a few minutes before ten in the morning, and the train passed the bridge across the Lagunes in eight minutes, a distance which is not accomplished by a gondola in so little time as an hour. The whole journey to Vicenza was performed in a little less than two hours. The weather was fine, the road was found to be perfect, and the departure and arrival of the train were hailed with loud cheers by a large concourse of persons, assembled at both ends."

M. Lecoq has written to the Paris Academy of Science, that he has succeeded in raising tea in France equal to that of China.

We observe that the subject of premature interments is exciting much attention in Paris. M. Le Guern has ascertained, that, since 1833, not less than 94 premature burials have been prevented by accident alone; 35 persons awoke from their lethargy just as their coffins were to be closed, 13 had been recovered by care, 7 by the upsetting of their coffins, 9 by punctures or incisions at the moment of putting on their shrouds, 19 by accidental delays at the grave yard, 6 by delay of friends, and 5 by other causes. He estimates that the number of premature burials in that city, is 27 a year.

The Danish Government is about to resume the colonization of the Nicobar islands, abandoned formerly on account of its climate.

The magnetical and meteorogical observations, made at the Greenwich Royal Observatory, have been published, and are of high value. They will, of course, attract the attention of our astronomers at Washington.

The sources of the Yarra, in Australia, have been discovered by Mr. Hoddle, of the Survey service.

The discovery of the new planet, Astrea, is due to Herr Hencke, of Berlin, who surrendered to *Eneke* the right of naming it. It is a planet of the eleventh magnitude, and its revolution will be about four years and a quarter. One of the most interesting subjects of inquiry among astronomers is, that of the appearance and disappearance of stars, a fact now well established.

We learn that apples of the Boston russet, are now considered the best late American apples which can be raised in England, in which they succeed well, proving superiour to the Newtown pippin, in that country.

Mr. Reinagle, a distinguished artist, has applied the motive power of air to a locomotive engine. His model, placed on a table, appears to work very beautifully, and he has illustrated his invention in the London pictorials. This gentleman has entertained the design of transferring some of his inventions to this country, where there is more enterprise, if there is not so much capital.

The Irish naturalists are rejoicing much, over the acquisition of an American bittern, the first that was ever seen in Ireland. This bird, being a heavy flier, must have had a difficult time in crossing the Atlantic. The Irish naturalists did not hesitate to eat his specimen, though he carefully preserved the skin. In his account of it, he quotes Audubon as authority for so doing, (we suppose,) who says, in winter, the negroes of New Orleans make out of the bittern their gumbo soup.

We notice, with pleasure, that our much admired botanist, Moritz Wilkomn, of whose interesting tour in Spain we quite envy him the enjoyment, though detained for a time at Cadiz by illness, has proceeded in his interesting researches. We trust that we shall have from him a complete and illustrated Flora of the country where he is travelling. It will be a valuable contribution to science.

We find in his notices of Gibraltar, very curious facts, which appear to have escaped the attention of travellers. On the road, and on the peninsula which connects it with the sandstone hill of St. Roque, he discovered many rare and beautiful plants. He remarks, however, that in consequence of the steepness of the eastern acclivity, it is difficult to obtain specimens; first, because permission to do so is difficult to obtain from the Governor; next, because the botanist will have to be lowered by ropes to the respective habitations of his sought-for specimens; and next, because the monkeys are not very favourable to scientific pursuits, being, perhaps, less amiable on account of the special protection afforded them by the English laws, of which, if the new theory of development is true, they may, at some future day, be the willing and loyal subjects.

Apropos to this, we find that a Scotch naturalist, Mr. McNab, has recently been reading before the Botanical Society of Edinburgh an account of his tour through the United States, and we may as well observe in this place, that there is a constant succession of these English and Scotch florists and botanists, travelling on this continent, who are engaged in collecting rare indigenous plants, which they send home for cultivation, and for which they obtain high prices.

The laws of magnetism are every day becoming more evident. One of the experiments, which demonstrates the character of its curves, and has recently been discovered, is this: place a glass trough on the poles of a powerful magnet, and fill it with any fluid, from which a precipitate is slowly forming, and it is found that this precipitate arranges itself in the magnetic curve.

The great lenses of Fresnel, used in the light-houses of France, have recently received a considerable extension of surface, are of better material, better polished, and are actually raised in power one-fourth. A very valuable paper, by Alan Stevenson, has appeared in reference to this subject.

It is said salt water may be made fresh, by the application of electricity.

A valuable turqouise mine is now worked in Persia, by a Russian Company. One of these gems has been found, of a size sufficient to be made into a drinking cup.

Forty-three steam vessels are now being built, by nine different houses, for the British Government. The total horse-power is 18,475. The French complain bitterly of the badness of their steam engines. The Compt d'Eu, a yacht, built for Louis Philippe, is entirely useless, in consequence of the defectiveness of her machinery.

LITERARY.

A book has been published, called the Horary Register, in which every page is divided into hours, and a record of the transaction of each is expected to be made in them. The thoughts of each moment would require each moment to record them, and we think the speculation will fail.

A new magazine, called the *Union*, has appeared in London; another periodical, also, called the Plough; another, the Almanac of the Month. The Penny Magazine is in future to be 16 pages, 8vo., and chiefly a magazine for reading. A magazine called the People's Journal has appeared, devoted to the "Emancipation of Labour;" one, also, called the

Connoisseur; and, among the new serials, a penny pictorial Balladist, and a pictorial penny Shakspeare, are announced.

Longfellow's Poems have become popular in England; still the critics do not give him the first rank.

Charles Dickens's new paper is pronounced a dead failure. It has no distinctive character, and no influence.

The last Edinburgh Review contains an article on European and American state confederacies.

The English journals notice the presentation of a cane, in 1844, of the Democratic Association of New York, to our present Secretary of the Navy.

A history of the captivity of Napoleon at St. Helena, by Count Montholon, has made its appearance, in which he inculpates the conduct of the English in regard to their prisoner.

A work has been published in London called the Historical Notices of the Missions of the Church of England, previous to the Independence of the United States, by the Rev. Dr. Hawkins. It is a valuable, though much biased production, and will throw a light on a subject of much interest to a large body of Christians.

A second edition of "Indications of the Creator" is announced.

THE FINE ARTS.

The musical skill of the company of singers, known as the Ethiopians, is commented on in high terms by the English critics. They compare them to the Brothers Herrman.

We presume that the theory of dancing, at least, places it under the foregoing head, and this gives us an opportunity of saying, that Fanny Elssler, who was carrying all before her in Rome, has been suddenly interrupted by the authorities, for appearing in the ballet of "Esmeralda," on account of its being dangerous to public morals.

Frederick Bach, the great organist of Berlin, is dead.

M. Guizot recently entertained the Ambassador of Morocco, and his suite, at dinner. The whole Corps of the Conservatory was present.

There are but 159 journals in Austria, or one to every 198,110 inhabitants. Forty of these periodicals are political in character.

Jenny Lind, of whom we have several times spoken, has created a theatrical war among the English managers, who seek to engage her. This reminds us of the story of Helen, on a small scale.

Charlet, a popular painter and sketcher, is dead. He was styled, King of the Sketch Painters, in ordinary, to the people. Lithographs, after his designs, have become quite common here.

CONCLUSION.

Our news from the Continent is rather meagre. We find some of the German States actively opposing emigration, but where it is as yet unrestrained, it continues on a large scale. It is said a large body of the Hartz miners are about to remove to Texas.

Painting, statuary, and the theatre, occupy much of the attention of the Continental press. The great incentives to human action, such as liberty, popular sovereignty, and industrial and political advancement furnish, are overpowered by the restraints of arbitrary power, and the genius of Europe appears bound, like Prometheus, while its vitals are torn from it by the vultures of despotism.

NOTICES OF NEW BOOKS.

Life in California: being a residence of several years in that territory, comprising a description of the country and the missionary establishments, with incidents, observations, etc. etc., illustrated with numerous engravings, by an American; to which is added a historical account of the origin, customs, and traditions of the Indians of California, translated from the original Spanish manuscript. New York: WILEY & PUTNAM, 161 Broadway. 1846.

This book is what it professes to be, an account given in a plain, straight-forward manner, of what the author saw during his residence in a country, the manners and customs of which are little known here. The narrative is clear—the accounts of the respective missions possess much interest—the book is beautifully printed, has nine well executed engravings, and as every thing relating to California has a peculiar interest at this time, we should hope the author would be well remunerated for his labours. Indeed, we wish this always, in an especial manner, when, as in the present case, we perceive that an intelligent fellow-citizen has been observant when abroad, and spreads before us, in an agreeable manner, very important and desirable information.

History of the English Revolution of 1640, *commonly called the great rebellion, from the ascension of Charles I. to his death, by T. Guizot, the Prime Minister of France, author of "History of Civilization in Europe," etc. etc. Translated by William Hiezlitt: in two volumes.* New York: D APPLETON, 200 Broadway. Philadelphia: G. S. APPLETON, 148 Chesnut street. Cincinnati: DERBY, BRADLEY & Co., 113 Main street. 1846.

No period of English history possesses more interest for the American reader, than that which is here recorded by one of the most distinguished men now living, who has given the powers of his great mind full scope in the examination into the causes which resulted in the death of the unfortunate King Charles, and the establishment of the protectorate.

This history commences with the ascension of Charles, and ends with his death; and while it records, with sufficient detail, the acts on the part of the crown which produced the fatal war between the king and his Parliament, traces each particular act to the cause or causes which produced it. There is, moreover, throughout the work, interspersed with the narrative, much of that inquiry into political philosophy, for which its renowned author is so much celebrated.

Some care is also taken, too, to make the reader acquainted with the leading features of most of the characters who acquired celebrity from the part they took, whether on the side of the king or the parliament. Take, for instance, the following account of "Hampden," from page 213. "Never had a man inspired a whole nation with so much confidence; whoever belonged to the national party, no matter from what rank or from what motives, looked to Hampden for the success of his views; the more moderate had faith in his wisdom, the more violent in his devoted patriotism; the more honest in his uprightness, the more intriguing in his talents. Prudent and reserved, while ever ready to brave danger, he had been the cause of no failure, still possessed the affections of all, and by his unexpected loss gave a shock to the general hope. Happy, and but too rare fortune, which thus fixed his name forever on that height, whither the love and full confidence of his contemporaries had carried it, and perhaps saved his virtue like his glory, from the rocks on which revolutions drive and wreck the noblest of their favourites. His death seemed a signal for the disasters which now for more than two months, successively, and without interruption, assailed the parliament, aggravating from day to day the evil, as yet hidden, of which they were the result."

It is somewhat remarkable that two works, not a little connected with the same events, should so almost simultantaneously have appeared, as Carlyle's Cromwell, and this History of the Revolution by Guizot. But though closely connected, the latter will prove highly useful to the better comprehension of the former.

A System of Logic, ratiocinative and inductive, being a connected view of the principles of evidence and the method of scientific investigation, by John Stuart Mill. New York: HARPER & BROTHERS, Publishers, 82 Cliff street. 1846.

In his commencement of the preface to this work, the author says, "this book makes no pretence of giving to the world a new theory of our intellectual operations. Its claim to attention, if it possess any, is grounded on the fact that it is an attempt, not to supercede, but to embody and systematize the best ideas which have been either promulgated on its subject by speculative writers, or conformed to by accurate thinkers, in their scientific inquiries."

The "Bourgeois gentilhomme" of Moliere, when informed by his master of the difference between poetry and prose, and of the nature of the latter, was surprised to find he had been speaking prose all his life without knowing it. We apprehend a similar feeling will prevail with many, when examining into the nature of logic, as explained by Mr. Mill, in the volume before us. He begins at the very bottom of the subject, defining his art, and rising so gradually and so clearly, that the reader is prepared, step by step, to follow him, deriving as he goes along a knowledge of the best form of thinking and reasoning; but though not heretofore possessing this form, he, like the "Bourgeois gentilhomme," will be surprised to find that he has been more or less a logician all his thinking and acting life. We are not about to pronounce upon this book, as to any thing more than its arrangement of the various subjects on which it treats, and the manner of discussing them; and with these we are much pleased. What more particularly attracts our attention is, that it leads the mind along, advancing it in knowledge, so as to qualify it to estimate the part under consideration, by what has been thus previously acquired.

Thus, six of the first sections of his introduction are inquiries into the nature of logic, examining somewhat into the various definitions of other authors, when in the seventh section we are told that "logic is the science of the operations of the understanding, which are subservient to the estimate of evidence: both the process itself of proceeding from known truths to unknown, and all intellectual operations auxiliary to this." Naming, definition, classification, &c., as being included, "not only for keeping our evidences and the conclusions from them permanent and readily accessible in the memory, but for so marshalling the facts which we may at any time be engaged in investigating, as to enable us to perceive more clearly what evidence there is, and to judge with fewer chances of errour, whether it be sufficient. The analysis of the instruments we employ in the investigation of truth, is part of the analysis of the investigation itself; since no art is complete unless another art, that of constructing the tools and fitting them for the purpose of the art, is embodied in it."

We make these quotations to give our readers a better idea of this work than we could give them by any language of our own. Of course, we have not studied it, and nothing but study would enable us to write understandingly of its merits. This we can say, however, that though it treats of matters and things most profound, its arrangements are such that any intelligent student may follow the author in his researches, and from what we have examined we have no doubt, that, like the "Burgeois gentilhomme," he will be surprised that he has been a practitioner of logic without knowing any thing of the art; yet will he perceive how much his reason will be strengthened, and his powers of investigation increased, by the systematic manner in which he will be taught to use them.

Wiley and Putnam's Library of Choice Reading. Volume 52, 53, 54.
Stories from the Italian Poets, being a summary in prose of the Poems of Dante, Pulci, Boiardo, Ariosto, and Tasso; with comments throughout, occasionally passages versified, and critical notices of the lives and genius of the authors, by Leigh Hunt, in three parts. New York: Wiley & Putnam, 161 Broadway. 1846.

"The purpose of these volumes (says the author) is to add to the stock of tales from the Italian writers; to retain, at the same time, as much of the poetry of the original as it is in the power of the writer's prose to compass, and to furnish careful biographical notices of the authors. There have been several collections of stories from the novelists of Italy, but none from the poets, and it struck me that prose versions from these, of the kind here offered to the public, might not be unwillingly received."

This purpose has been achieved in a manner to excite a deep interest; at least we can speak for ourselves. The story of the journey through Hell, through Purgatory, and through Heaven, in the manner in which it is here narrated, although deprived of a part of its poetical dress, loses nothing of the high moral it contains. The horrors of Erebus are shown in all their force, and, contrasted with the delights of Elysium, well portray the different conditions of the miserable and the happy in a future state.

The romantic Adventures of Angelica, the Death of Agrican, the Saracen Friends, Seeing is Believing, Astolpho's Journey to the Moon, Anodante and Genevra, Suspicion, Isabella, Orlando and Sophronia, Tancred and Clorinda, Rinaldo and Armida, given to the public in this form, will doubtless be read by numbers who would not think of reading them, if translated as poems. The lives and genius of the several Italian poets, from whose works the stories are taken, will also give great pleasure. We are, therefore, glad to see a translation of this Italian literature in this form.

The Sportsman's Library, or, Hints on the Hunter—Hunting—Hounds—Shooting—Game—Sporting—Dogs—Fishing, &c., &c., by John Mills, author of the Old English Gentleman, the Stage Coach, the English Fireside, &c., &c. Philadelphia: LEA & BLANCHARD. 1846.

This is a manual for sportsmen, containing an immense fund of knowledge suitable for those fond of hunting and the chase, with much technical information of horses, dogs, guns, game, &c., with the best mode of training, feeding, and management of horses and dogs—of increasing and propagating game, and of preparing all the paraphernalia of the sportsman. Also, a description of the birds included under the title "Game." There is, further, a treatise on the disease of dogs, and how to administer medicine to them. Chapter the 28th gives an abridgement of the game laws of England—a list of London gun-makers, and a copious index to the book. In fine, it is, as we have said, a sportsman's manual. We are not of a sporting character; if we were, we should not choose to be without a book which seems really to combine such a fund of knowledge, and gives a great variety of information on every subject in any-wise connected with the chase.

Memoirs of the late Rev. Alexander Proudfit, with selections from his diary, and correspondence and recollections of his life, etc. etc., by his son. By John Forsyth, D. D., minister of Union Church, Newburgh. New York: HARPER & BROTHERS, 82 Cliff street. 1846.

This is the life and Christian experience of a good man, a minister of the Presbyterian faith, who, in 1754, was ordained in Scotland, and after itinerating for some years, finally settled in Salem, in the northern part of this State. His son bears this testimony of him. "Rarely has any person, occupying a public station, civil or ecclesiastical, passed through a long life with fewer enemies. His disposition, amiable and unassuming, by nature, and doubly so by an uncommon share of that wisdom which is pure and peaceable, disarmed opposition, and few have possessed a larger share in the esteem and affections of all with whom he was associated. Indeed, lowliness of mind, gentleness of natural temper, extraordinary self-denial and mortification to the world, may be considered as the distinguishing features of his character." And from what we have read, in looking over the book, we think this was indeed his character. The work is full of good counsel, and may be profitably read by all who would emulate the Christian virtues of the person whose experiences are here described in an interesting manner.

A Defence of Capital Punishment, by the Rev. George Cheever, D. D., and an essay on the ground and reason of punishment, with special references to the penalty of death, by Taylor Lewis, Esq., with an appendix, containing a review of Burleigh on the death penalty. New York: WILEY & PUTNAM, 161 Broadway.

This work, as will be clearly seen from its title, is in favour of capital punishment. We desire to be considered as expressing no opinion in favour of the ground here taken, when we say, that as the public mind has been, and is much agitated, on this very solemn and important subject, it may be as well to see the arguments on both sides; and here will be found an attempt to justify the punishment of death, both upon scriptural grounds, and public expediency.

The Artists of America.

Under this title, BAKER & SCRIBNER, 145 Nassau street, New York, have commenced the publication, in a series of numbers, of biographical sketches of the American Painters, Sculptors, and Engravers, illustrative of their professional lives and works; embellished with engravings on steel. The work is edited by C. Edwards Lester, Esq., our Consul at Genoa, (whose biographical sketch of Powers, the American sculptor, we have already noticed, in a review of "the Artist, Merchant and Statesman,") and whose literary taste and truly American feelings are well known to his countrymen. The first number of the "Artists of America," contains a biography and portrait of Washington Allston, deservedly placed at the head of American painters. It is written in Mr. Lester's usual pleasing style, and we have the authority of one of our artists, who has perused the sketch, for saying that it is well and impartially done; and we wish the publishers every success in this enterprise, and are happy to bear testimony to the handsome manner in which the number before us is got up.

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NAPLES AND SICILY.

WE gave in our last number some account of Naples, but as it was very short and imperfect, inserted merely to show something of the wretched state of that Heaven-endowed country, owing to its cruel and vicious political institutions, we have concluded to occupy the pages we always devote to commerce at the commencement of each number, to show more fully what bad government can do, to curse the human race. We think, too, that such an exhibition of the degraded condition in which the mass of a population of upwards of 6,000,000 of our fellow-men can be kept, will carry with it a good moral, and show to the people of the United States what they owe, under a benign Providence, to the great and good men, now no more, who have secured to them such privileges and blessings as their descendants enjoy under the glorious institutions achieved by the valour and secured by the wisdom of an illustrious ancestry. Such a contrast as is here exhibited, of supreme misery from idleness on the one hand, and the greatest comfort and happiness from industry on the other, ought to convince the most skeptical, that the true secret of *national* happiness results from a multiplicity of employment: that the great secret of all national prosperity and independence is to be found, not in the amount of wealth which the few can amass, but in the full and complete activity and enterprise of the whole population.

We have often urged, and we shall continue to enforce the fact as indisputable, that this, more than any other cause, gave vigour and effect to the American people in the mighty struggle for their independence.

It was not alone to disunite themselves from the government of Great Britain, that our sires embarked in the American Revolution, but to get rid of all the evils incident to the feudal system—one of the greatest of which was, and is, the depression of the masses.

The United States were as completely free from British dominion under the Confederacy, so far as mere government was concerned, as they now are; but the Confederacy was found not to answer the designed purpose of the Revolution, and from no other cause than the fact that the mechanic and the workingman were left without protection to their labour.

The Constitution was resorted to, to remedy so grievous an evil, and accordingly one of the first acts under it, recognised the right to protect the American manufacturer; and an act soon followed, granting a bounty on vessels engaged in the fishing trade. But we mean not, in these few introductory remarks, to run into any long statement of facts, much less to resort to argument. We have touched upon this subject, because we think, while appealing to the record to show the extremely degraded condition of man in the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, it cannot be considered irrelevant to assign what we consider the chief reason for it, and also to show that the very genius of our institutions is of decidedly the opposite tendency, if the purposes for which they were founded are adhered to. If, on the other hand, they are lost sight of, and by a reduction of the present tariff a free ingress is allowed, at a twenty per cent. average, to the proceeds of the labour, skill, and capital of Europe, though our citizens can never be lowered in the scale as are the serfs of Russia, the lazaroni of Italy, or the degraded Turks, yet they *may*, and they *will*, be reduced to pretty much the same state as similar classes are in over-populated England.

Thus much we have felt it would not be irrelevant for us to say, as an introduction to the past and present state of the population, trade, and commerce of the kingdom of the Two Siciles.

COMMERCE AND TRADE OF NAPLES AND SICILY.

Comprehending the possessions of the King of the Two Sicilies.

The first account of any importance recorded of Naples, is in the year 1194, when Henry VI., of the House of Suabia, got possession of Naples and Sicily, having driven out the Normans of France, who had been settled there two hundred years, in great prosperity and credit.

It is by far the largest State in Italy, comprehending the ancient countries of Sammium, Campania, and Apulia; and Magna Grecia hath its name from its capital. Formerly it was called Sicily, on this side the Pharo, viz, of Messina, whence the present king is called the King of the Two Sicilies. It is bounded on all sides but one, the northeast, by the Mediterranean and the Adriatic. On the northeast side it is bounded by the Ecclesiastical States. Its greatest length, from northeast to northwest, is about 500 English miles; and its breadth, from the northeast to the southwest, a hundred and fifty miles. It abounds with all sorts of grain, has the finest fruit and vegetables of every kind, and rice, flax, oil, and wine, in the greatest abundance. Its area is about 30,000 square miles. It is traversed from north to south by the Appenine Mountains, and several ramifications of that chain, branching east and west towards the Adriatic and Mediterranean, on the shores of which they form bold and lofty headlands.

Its rivers are little more than torrents, overflowing their banks in winter and spring, and being little more than dry ravines in summer and early autumn. There are but three lakes in the kingdom of Naples: Fucino, Averno, and Lucrino, though there are large ponds of water.

The Terra di Lavoro, Apulia, the greater part of Calabria, part of the Abruzzi, and the district of Naples, are remarkably fertile. The productions of the realm are, therefore, very valuable. Corn, wine, oil, flax, hemp, oranges, and various fruits, and all kinds of vegetables, are raised in considerable quantities, but their production might be increased to double the amount necessary for the sustenance of its inhabitants. Rock salt, coal, and other minerals abound, though scarcely any attempt has been made to work their mines.

Ship timber they have, but it is so far from the seaports, that what they use is imported.

Agriculture and industry of every kind are still in the most rude condition. Farming implements, carts, ploughs, and tools of every kind, are of the most wretched description. A learned Neapolitan has justly said, "No country is so eminently blessed by nature as the Two Sicilies, and none has been so barbarized by man."

Some miserable cotton manufactories were established some time ago at Salerno, which, with the iron forge and mine at Stilo, the glove and hat manufactories at Naples, coarsely made linens and woollens, and some trifling silk fabrics, compose nearly all the branches of manufacturing industry. Roads and facilities of intercommunication have been almost entirely neglected since the time of Murat. The surrounding seas of the kingdom abound with fish, the forests with game, and the marshes with wild fowl.

Nothing of consequence has been done to drain any of the low fertile grounds or marshes, in order to prevent malaria; and all the harbours, even that of Naples, are in the most neglected condition. In short, no country in Europe possesses greater national advantages, and in none has so little been done to develop the abundant resources and riches of the kingdom.

The statistics given are from the most authentic sources; we take them from Macgregor's statistics, and he vouches for them, as just obtained from the Statistical Bureau of the kingdom, and from the British consul resident at Naples.

Macgregor states, he doubts if any improvement, of any consequence, has taken place in the condition of Naples since the accession of the Bourbons, and thus justifies his opinion:

"Our grounds of doubt are founded on facts, which those who have travelled over the kingdom of the Two Sicilies, will not, we believe, deny. On our visiting the continental and insular parts of the kingdom, the appearance of every town and village presented an aspect which led to the presumption that these towns and villages were, at one time, in a better and happier condition. We found scarcely a town that did not contain a greater number of houses than were necessary to lodge the inhabitants. We found some towns, especially on the Island of Sicily, deserted. With the exception of the Chiaja, and a very limited portion of the town near the port, even Naples itself presents this aspect. Palermo certainly does; but we visited the latter city the year after the cholera, and much may be ascribed to the destruction of life by that pestilence. Marsala and Geigenti, the one in consequence of her wine trade, and the other from being the port of export for sulphur, presented a more pleasing and improved appearance.

"Seignor del Rè endeavours to prove the great improvement of the continental realm under the Bourbons; but we are bound to say, that most of the alleged improvements were made under the French and Murat, and that the roads which the latter left unfinished, have never been completed; for example, the road to Pausilippo, where two hundred yards were left by Murat uncut, and it has remained in that state ever since."

Macgreggor winds up his account with the following remarks:

"Until a more sound system of commercial legislation—until the customs duties cease to be farmed—until the police and military establishment be reinforced—until the expense of maintaining the Swiss regiments be abolished—until the people be educated in useful knowledge—until the corruption of the law courts disappears, and until the roads and means of communication be greatly extended and improved, there is little to hope for the people, or for the improvement of this beautiful and naturally rich country."

The population is given in 1839, officially, as follows:

Population of each Province of the Kingdom of Naples, in the year ending December, 1839, *are given officially as follows:*

PROVINCES.	POPULATION.					
	Males.	Females.	TOTAL.	Priests.	Monks.	Nuns.
City of Naples,	156,922	180,492	337,414	1,160	1,550	1,078
Province of ditto,	189,518	191,352	380,870	2,046	569	597
Terra di Lavoro,	327,881	344,030	671,911	3,690	1,115	1,694
Principate Citra,	273,293	271,115	544,408	2,504	1,072	908
Ditto ultra,	188,399	190,668	379,067	1,812	452	358
Capitanata,	124,273	149,398	273,671	2,542	1,102	757
Basilicata,	224,795	236,073	460,868	2,374	1,062	698
Molise,	174,838	169,754	344,592	1,241	358	71
Bari,	223,672	231,531	455,203	2,672	1,145	1,441
Terra d' Otranto,	191,090	200,318	391,408	2,320	1,446	698
Abruzza Citra,	146,980	145,146	292,126	752	353	472
1st ditto ultra,	105,433	103,746	209,179	592	331	152
2d ditto ditto,	154,862	149,358	304,220	1,443	688	549
Calabria Citra,	213,369	228,535	441,904	1,816	710	207
1st ditto ultra,	143,760	147,493	291,253	1,267	299	421
2d ditto ditto,	169,923	165,242	335,165	1,552	497	348
Total,	3,009,008	3,104,251	6,113,259	29,783	12,751	10,449

The number of monasteries is 660, and the monks actually reach from 12,000 to 15,000. The taxation will be found in the following table:

State Revenue and Expenditure of Sicily in 1838.

HEADS OF TAXES.	PRODUCE.		HEADS.	AMOUNT.	
	Ounces.	£		Ounces.	£
Direct.			Contribution to Naples,	978,286	489,143
Land-tax,	465,000	232,500	Payments to Sicilian Exchequer: viz:		
Indirect.			Indirect taxes,	51,348	25,674
Excise,	611,314	305,657	Divers branches,	59,961	29,980
Customs and navigation,	397,938	198,969	Particular administrations,	87,245	43,622
Lottery,	126,335	63,668	Other departments,	781,394	390,663
Registration,	97,229	48,614			
Stoppages of salaries,	52,800	26,400	Total expenditure,	1,958,164	979,082
Post-office,	19,506	9,753			
Crusade,	17,761	8,881			
Miscellaneous,	167,281	83,640			
Gross total of indirect taxes,	1,493,164	746,582			
Deductions therefrom,	232,426	116,213			
Nett amount of indirect taxes,	1,260,738	630,369			
Total revenue,	1,725,738	862,869			

The variety of the rich soils and the climate of the Neapolitan dominions, require only skilful industry, security under the government, and roads to carry the produce to market, to render Calabria, Apulia, and the greater part of the remaining provinces, the most profitably productive, and the people among the most independent in Europe.

The territory is said to be thus appropriated to agriculture:

	Square miles.
Corn lands,	12,000
Vineyards,	1,000
Woods and olive grounds,	3,000
Gardens and orchards,	500
Pastures and sheep-walks,	6,500
Wastes,	9,000
Total amount square miles,	32,000

The average crop of wheat is 5,500,000 imperial quarters of eight bushels each, and the yearly consumption about 5,000,000, being at the rate of about four-fifths of a quarter for each inhabitant; but, in an abundant harvest, the crop often amounts to 10,000,000 quarters. The annual produce of Indian corn is about 500,000 imperial quarters. The yearly production of wine is about 400,000 pipes, the principal part of which is consumed at home. About 13,000 pipes are made into brandy, at the distilleries near the capital, and about 950 tons of argols and cream of tartar are prepared for foreign markets. About 70,000 tons of olive oil are expressed yearly, half of which is consumed at home. Of the amount exported, the greater quantity is produced in Apulia and Calabria. In the former province, the chief loading place is Gallipoli, which supplies England, Holland, and the north of Europe, with clarified oils for the use of the woollen manufactories.

The yearly crop of cotton is about 10,000 tons, or 22,400,000 lbs. The annual production of raw silk is about 1,000,000 lbs., of which about half is consumed at home.

Captain Gallwey, who recently visited the parts of the Neapolitan kingdom which he describes, gives the following account of its agriculture:

"The province of the Capitanata, of which Foggia is the capital, may be considered the most productive of Naples proper, in soft corn.

"There are two species of wheat grown in the kingdom of Sicily: the soft wheat, of which the best bread is made, and hard wheat, which is chiefly for macaroni.

"A large stock of grain is always kept in the stores of Foggia, which is fed from the different districts in the province, as the wheat is sold. San Levero and Lucera are amongst the most productive in the corn districts in the province.

"In the different towns, as soon as the corn is threshed out, it is stored both in store-houses and vaults formed under the streets, and from the latter the store-houses are supplied, as they become empty by sales. This mode of storing corn in large vaults prevails generally throughout the kingdom, whether in Puglia or in the Abruzzi. Captain Gallwey considers that, with an average crop, the kingdom of Naples may produce a surplus for exportation of 180,000 quarters, or 1,440,000 bushels. From our knowledge (Macgregor's) of the kingdom of Naples, and taking the fertility of Calabria into the account, we consider that with a population who are chiefly employed in agriculture, 1,000,000 or 8,000,000 of bushels would be a very moderate surplus of grain for exportation, allowing the population to be at the same time abundantly nourished." We pause here a moment to remark, that a reference to the Parliamentary document of the average annual importation of wheat into England, (which will be seen at page 789 of our February number,) from 1761 to 1840, the highest average of any ten years was that from 1831 to 1840, and that was only 908,118 quarters, so that Mr. Macgregor's opinion appears to be that Naples alone could furnish nearly one hundred thousand quarters more than England has needed, as an average for any ten years in the table to which we refer. How absurd, then, is the idea that a repeal of the British corn laws can open a market for our grain, when the consul at Palermo, in Sicily, reports the average price at 38 shillings per quarter of eight bushels, being 98 cents per bushel, and that at a time when the amount exported was only 200,000 quarters, or 1,600,000 bushels, instead of 8,000,000 of bushels, the quantity which Macgregor says would be a very moderate surplus under a better government; and Sir Robert Peel tells us the king is so good a political economist, that if he (Sir Robert) be right, we may soon look for this increase, in addition to the immense amount which can be supplied from the Baltic and Black Sea. But we must go on with Macgregor's account of the present state of Naples. He thus proceeds: "Taking into account, on the other hand, that they have every discouraging circumstance, except soil and climate, to contend with; arbitrary laws, which may be suddenly put into execution, as has frequently been done, to prevent the exportation of corn, and under which the land tax is often unequally levied; excessive duties on foreign iron, *and none of their own*, which prevents any improvement in agricultural instruments, and the very inferiour and rude ploughs and other implements used, we are bound to attribute great credit to the farming population of the kingdom of Naples proper, for what they have done, and what they continue to do, in their agricultural pursuits."

So much for what Mr. Macgregor says of Naples proper. Now let us see what he records of the situation of the island of Sicily. "Agriculture, pasturage, fisheries, the sulphur mines, and a few manufactories, are the occupations in which Sicilian labour is employed. As to agriculture, the land tax, which is rated at the value of produce at the time the British troops occupied Sicily, is so oppressive that this burden occasions many fertile tracts to remain uncultivated. Prince Trabia, one of the largest proprietors, stated to me that his lands paid 25 to sometimes 60 per cent. of the produce to the crown; and a still greater evil is, that scarcely this burden, except so much as pays the salaries of the Neapolitan employés, and the expense of maintaining prisons, is laid out on the country. None of the revenues go to make roads, or any improvements by which the country would benefit. All is spunged off for the use of his majesty at Naples, and to pay the Swiss regiments.

As to the lands, they chiefly belong to the nobility. The Princes Butera, Trabia, Patagonia, and Pandolfina, had respective incomes of £40,000 to £50,000 sterling annually. But the land tax, and the division of half of all the property left on the father's death, which is taken from the eldest son and divided equally among the other children, have reduced those incomes to one third and one fourth at least. Every new subdivision of the lands, which must take place on each succession, will further reduce those rents, in from twenty to forty years, to very small incomes.

The following is an estimate given us, in 1839, of the distribution of the lands of Sicily:

	Acres.
Cultivated as arable or corn lands,	3,125,000
Vineyards,	115,000
Vegetable and fruit gardens,	260,000
Woods and olive plantations,	1,125,000
Entirely waste and great part fertile, and pastures fertile but in great waste,	538,000
	5,163,000

Ploughs and all agricultural implements appear to have undergone no improvement for many centuries; and in fact, instead of a better state of husbandry than all former accounts have given us, even as late as those of the middle of the last century, we found over the whole island, as late as 1839, that agriculture, the implements, and the dwellings of the people, were in a most deteriorated condition.

Were it not for the fruit of the cactus (the Indian fig or figunino) which grows wild and abundant, the present agricultural produce of Sicily would not probably maintain two-thirds of the diminished population. Sicily is the only country where we find numerous modern ruins; whole towns have ceased to be inhabited within the last century. It is, at the same time, wonderful to meet with such good crops of wheat, barley, raw beans, &c., and also of tobacco, cotton, hemp, flax, &c., with scarcely more culture than scratching the ground to let in the seed.

The soils are of various qualities, but come mostly under the head of calcareous where they are deep, and of rich and fertile loams where they are shallow: they contain marine exuviæ, which, under a sterile appearance, produce the most luxuriant crops."

CONDITION AND WAGES OF SICILIAN LABOURERS.

"The agricultural population" says Mr. Goodwin, "consists of three great classes; the *Borgesi*, or yeomanry, the *Inquilini*, or small farmers, and the *Contadini*, or pesantry. In popular use, however, the rustics are divided into Hats, or Borgesi, Caps, or Villani.

"The *higher Borgesi* are either small proprietors or middle men, between the landlords and the tenants; the *lower Borgesi* are quit-renters or copartners. The small proprietor ploughs and sows his own land: the middle man farms the property of others upon leases of three to nine years. Keeping the greater part in his own hands, he lets out the rest to under-tenants, who pay their rent in kind. The quit-renters are holders of small properties on renewable leases. These are heritable on small fines in the same family, but are not transferable to strangers without the consent of the landlord. The copartners are farmers of small estates in partnership with the landlords. In tillage the landlord ploughs the field twice or thrice, furnishes the seed corn, and makes advances of wheat for food. The farmer sows the seed, gathers the crop, and delivers the corn to the landlord, who keeps about two-thirds for himself, and gives the rest to the husbandman. In olive-grounds, vineyards, and orangeries, the tillage and pruning falls entirely on the copartner, who receives about two-fifths of the crop, and gives the rest to the landlord.

"The *Inquilini* are skilled labourers, owners of a few yoke of oxen, or two or three mules, who till the ground in partnership with the middle men.

"The *Contadini* are of three kinds, yearly servants, monthly servants, and day-labourers. The yearly servants, found chiefly on large estates, compose four classes. 1st. The chief bailiff, who lets out farms for one or two years: the surveyor, who measures the land once a year; and the accountant, who keeps the books and papers. These people receive each about £30 a year, without provisions. 2d. Upper men, as stewards, mounted guards, chief herdsmen, plough-keepers, overseers, &c., who receive about £24 a year, without provisions. 3d. Under men, as ploughmen, oxherds, shepherds and goatherds, muleteers, under guards, and dairymen. These earn from £3 to £6 a year, besides food. 4th. Lads, as cow-boys, stable-boys, and boys under goatherds and shepherds, receiving about £3 a year, besides food.

"The daily provisions of men and boys in common, are three and a half pounds of coarse bread, and a half-pint of oil. The men receive likewise a quart of wine a day all the year round, which is given to the lads only during the summer. In May the allowance is larger than usual, and in June, July, and August, which are the harvest months, the labourers eat and drink without stint or restriction.

"The monthly servants differ from the yearly, in receiving a certain quantity of wheat instead of bread. Their wages are somewhat lower than those of persons hired by the year.

"The peasantry dwell in dark and filthy hovels, the floors of which are matted with green stuff, the walls plastered with mud, and the rafters hung round with cobwebs. A mattress and trestles, two or three clumsy chairs, a rickety table, and some earthern pots and pans, are all the household furniture of a Sicilian labourer. The dress of the peasantry is as dismal as their dwellings are gloomy. Black or brown is the prevailing colour. The men wear a nightcap, and a hooded cloak over a round jacket, knee-breeches, cloth leggings, and heavy shoes: the women, muffled up in short cloaks, wear a scanty gown and petticoat, and shuffle about in slippers usually down at heel.

"As farmhouses are scarce, the labourers live in villages, whence they go forth at sunrise, returning at sunset, when their working-place is hard by: when, however, it is far off, the peasant rides out on Monday morning, and comes home on Saturday evening. During the week he sleeps in a straw hut, or seeks shelter in a grotto or cavern. From April until June he works from 4 in the morning until 8 A. M.; from 9 until noon; and from 3 P. M., until sunset. He leaves off work in the middle of the day to sleep after dinner. During the harvest months of July and August, he works about twelve hours a day, and from September until April, from sunrise to sunset; stopping half an hour for breakfast, and a whole hour for dinner. All kinds of field work are done in a slovenly manner. Corn and grain are sown broadcast, or dropped into dibble-made holes. The rude implements of husbandry are the primitive plough, the hoe, the sickle, and three-pronged wooden fork. The *zappa*, or hoe, the substitute for the spade, is about two feet long, and weighs from seven to nine pounds.

"In the southern and eastern parts, beans and wheat are sown alternately. First, beans planted in November, in land twice ploughed in October, are got in, in the following May: then wheat is sown in November, in land twice ploughed as before, to be reaped in the June and July following. In the interiour, and on the northern and southern coasts, beans and wheat are followed by a year of fallow; so that a white crop, or a green crop, is got in only once in three years. Two bushels of wheat, sown on an acre of ground, will yield from 16 to 25 bushels at harvest. Twenty bushels may be taken as the average of the return of the island, or ten for one. The principal crops are those of wheat, barley, rice, beans, pulse, and seeds; the secondary are those of barilla, cotton, flax, hemp, sumach, and tobacco.

" A good crop of corn may be reckoned at 2,000,000 quarters of wheat, and 100,000 quarters of barley. Of the wheat about 1,800,000 quarters are consumed at home, being at the rate of one quarter a head for each inhabitant: the rest is sent abroad: some goes to Malta, and some to Greece. The barley serves chiefly for provender. The wheat is mostly of the hard kind. The coarse species is used for household bread; the finer sort for macaroni. The former weighs about 462 lbs. a quarter, the latter 483 lbs. Both species, being too hard to be ground by English mill-stones, require the use of French burrs or iron rollers. The soft wheat, grown in small quantities, and used for French bread, weighs about 476 lbs. a quarter, and being spongy and perishable, is unfit for exportation. The barley, which weighs about 378 lbs. per quarter, is not suited for malting.

" The working population of Sicily consists of six classes of people, namely, labourers in husbandry, labourers in mines, labourers in factories, labourers in handicrafts, labourers in fisheries, and labourers on the sea; most of which are divisible into two sections, as skilled labourers or masters, and common labourers or journeymen.

" The number of working days in the year varies from 250, the average of a miner, to 295, the average of a wine cooper.

" A handicraftsman works about 266, and a day-labourer, a cotton spinner, and a silk throwster, work each about 275.*

" The silk weaver works *ten* hours a day; the cotton spinner *thirteen;* the tanner and the wine cooper *eleven* each; and the handicraftsman *twelve* hours in summer, and *nine* in winter.

" The yearly earnings of journeymen or common labourers, vary from £8 17s. 4d., the average of bleachers, dyers, &c., in cotton mills, to £25 17s. 2d., the average of general coopers in the principal cities.

" In silk factories, a girl who turns the wheel earns £6 1s. 8d.; a woman who reels, £9 2s. 6d.; and a man who weaves, £19 19s.

" In the cotton mills, a boy, who is a spinner, earns £3 17s. 4d., and a man, who is the same, £13 15s.; a female weaver earns £6 18s., and a male £13 6s. In the tanneries, a common stretcher earns £9 3s. 4d. In the Marsala wine factories, a jobber, who washes the casks and racks off the wine, earns £17 4s. 2d., whilst a cooper at the same place earns £22 2s. 6d., and his boy £11 1s. 3d.

" In handicrafts, wages of common labourers vary from £12 13s. 10d., the average of a journeyman hatter, to £25 17s. 2d., the average of a general cooper in the principal cities.

" The *class of handicraftsmen* comprises four sections. 1. Labourers employed in building and furnishing dwelling-houses. 2. Labourers employed in building and fitting out merchantmen. 3. Labourers employed in constructing wheel carriages. 4. Labourers employed in making up articles of clothing.

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* We deduct for Sundays, church feasts, and local festivals, 69 days; and for time lost, through want of employment, 30 days more, making in all 99 days.

"In the first section, a journeyman turner, usually a lad, earns £6 13s. per annum; an ironfounder, (at Palermo alône,) £15 10s. 4d.; a whitesmith, £16 19s. 11d.; a locksmith, £17 3s. 2d.; a coppersmith, £18 9s. 5d.; a joiner and carpenter, £19 4s. 3d. each; a mason, £19 19s.; and a general cooper, £25 17s. 2d. The average of this section is £17 13s. 3d.

"In the second section a journeyman blockmaker earns £12 3s. 10d.; a ropemaker, £12 11s. 3d.; a sailmaker, £14 8s. 2d; a calker, £16 19s. 11d.; and a shipwright, £25 13s. 11d. The average of this section is £16 7s. 5d.

"In the third section a cartwright and coachmaker earn £17 14s. 8d. each.

"In the fourth section a glover (female) earns £6 13s.; a journeyman hatter, £12 3s. 10d.; a shoemaker, £12 11s. 3d.; and a tailor, £14 0s. 11d. The average of this section is £11 7s. 1d.

"The average of journeymen in all the four sections is £15 15s. 8d. per annum.

"In the above statement, a moderate deduction has been made from the gross wages for the use of tools and implements, which are furnished by the master to the journeymen at various rates of charge. No drink is given to any one, and no perquisites are allowed, except to the coopers and carpenters, who have a right to take home the chips of the workshop.

"Among skilled labourers, or masters, wages vary from £15 per annum, those of house stewards, mounted guards, chief herdsmen, ploughkeepers, and overseers upon large estates, unto £60; those of overlookers in wine factories at Marsala, chief bailiffs, land surveyors, and bookkeepers of farms, receive £25 a year each; foremen in tanneries earn about £36 per annum, and mining captains £55.

"In the first section of handicrafts, a master turner earns £17 4s. 8d.; a whitesmith, £25 17s. 3d.; a carpenter, £26 12s.; a mason, £28 1s. 5d.; a locksmith and an ironfounder, £31 0s. 8d. each; a coppersmith, £32 10s. 2d.; and a general cooper, £41 7s. 7d. The average of this section is £29 12s. 9d.

"In the second section a master blockmaker earns £23 3s. 4d.; a ropemaker and a sailmaker, £21 7s. 8d. each; a calker, £30 17s. 3d., and a shipwright, £50 4s. 9d. The average of this section is £30 8s. 1d.

"In the third section master cartwrights and coachmakers earn £26 12s. each.

"In the fourth section a master glover earns £17 14s. 8d.; a hatter, £22 8s. 4d.; a shoemaker, £23 12s. 11d.; and a tailor, £24 15s. The average of this section is £22 2s. 9d.

"The average earnings of masters in all the four sections is £27 3s. 11d, per annum.

"The wages of all workmen are paid in money only; those of husbandmen and wine coopers excepted, which are paid partly in cash and partly in kind.

"Farm servants receive 4½d. a day in cash, and 3d. in kind. The payment in kind is thus regulated: men and boys in common receive daily 3¼ lbs. of coarse bread, with pulse and cheese, or with half a pint of olive oil, all the year round. The men receive likewise a quart of wine daily, but the lads have it only during summer. In May the labourer is allowed 14 oz. of bread extra, (making his daily allowance 4 lbs. 10 oz.,) and in the harvest months of June, July, and August, his provisions are unstinted.

" A wine cooper in a Marsala factory is allowed from 1½ to 2 quarts of wine a day, according to the season, besides a measure of oil and firewood for cooking. His boy receives a half allowance of the same necessaries.

" Such are the yearly earnings of workmen whose employment is steady and regular. There are other classes, whose earnings are not capable of exact calculation, by reason of the shortness and inconstancy of their several occupations.

" Such are fishermen and seamen.

" In the tunny fishery, which lasts from the 15th of May to the 29th of June, the masters, mates, and boatswains, receive respectively £1 9s. 2d., £1 2s. 6d., and 15s. as wages, and share amongst them 10 per cent. on the catch of tunnies, and 15 per cent. on that of other fish, which per centage forms a material addition to their ordinary wages. The common fishermen and boys receive £2 10s. and £1 5s. respectively for the season, without sharing the per centage on the catch.

"Sicilian seamen are of two classes—viz, such as keep within the Mediterranean, and such as sail on the Atlantic. The former class is paid partly in provisions, and partly in shares of the freight. The master receives £1 11s. a month in provisions, and takes 4-60ths of the freight. The mate has likewise £1 11s. in provisions, but only 3-60ths of the freight. The boatswain has 15s. 6d. a month in provisions, and 2-60ths of the freight. The seamen receive each 15s. 6d. a month in provisions, and 1-60th of the freight.

"Seamen who navigate the Atlantic are paid wholly in money. They find their own provisions, and claim no part of the freight. The master receives from £3 to £4 per calendar month. The mate £2 10s. to £3; the boatswain £2 to £2 10s.; and the seamen £1 10s. to £2 each.

" The second point of view—the labourer's habits of life—takes in his outlay for house rent, food and fuel, clothing and furniture.

" The labourer's house-rent varies from 4d. a week, that of the husbandman, to 1s., that of the wine cooper.

" The first article of food with all classes is wheaten bread of the coarser kind, which sells at an average of a penny per pound.

"The second is flat beans or onions, which cost about a halfpenny a pound each. The third is olive oil, used for cooking and for burning, which sells at 3d. a pound; and the last article is pure wine, which costs about 4d. a gallon. Upon holidays the workman feasts on a little maccaroni and cheese, or treats himself with fresh or salt fish, but of butchers' meat he hardly knows the taste, except in the larger towns. Wood used for fuel sells at about 8d. a cwt., and charcoal at 1s. 10d. a cwt.

" The annual expenditure for clothing and furniture, both of which are mean and scanty, cannot be positively estimated. The reader may judge how small is its amount, when he finds, upon calculation, that a master handicraftsman has but 10s. 6d., and a journeyman 6s., to lay out weekly.

" The labourers of all classes are sober but unthrifty, and as honest as work-people are in general in half-civilized countries.

" An exception in point of honesty must, however, be made, upon English authority, to the people in the sulphur mines.

"In these great undertakings the practice of fraud and robbery begins with the manager, runs through the captain and carriers, and terminates with the wharfingers. Each party is in turn the prey of another. The manager falsifies his accounts to cheat the landlord or lessee. The mining captain conspires with the pickman to defraud the manager; the carrier pilfers sulphur from the kiln to overreach the burners; and the wharfinger uses false weights to trick the carriers out of their due.

"The amount of knowledge and learning possessed by the working classes, is best described in the words of a living and popular author. 'In the capital itself,' says D. Raffaele Busacca, 'the working classes are shamefully ignorant: few mechanics can read, still fewer write. The further we go into the country, the grosser appears popular ignorance. Man, sunk to the level of the brute, passes his life in moral darkness. Towns are to be met with, containing from 4,000 to 5,000 souls, amongst whom scarce three persons, besides the parish priests, the judge, and the registrar, know the letters of the alphabet.'

"The Mistrettese form, however, an exception; most of them can read, write, and keep accounts, and are generally employed as bookkeepers, surveyors, &c."

MANUFACTURES OF NAPLES AND SICILY.

From Macgregor's Statistical Digest.

"We scarcely know of any country where the manufactures of woven goods, unless it be silks, are less adapted either to the genius of the people or to local circumstances. The kings and governments of the kingdom, allured by specious statements made not only by Neapolitans, but by English, French, and German adventurers, have, however, enforced a system of commercial legislation for the purpose of creating and maintaining woollen, cotton, and other manufactures, for which the whole country has paid dearly, and by which the contrabandists, foreigners as well as Neapolitans, have gained enormous and regular profits. The mines of the kingdom have not hitherto produced sufficient ore to furnish iron, for the use of even one farmer; yet heavy duties are imposed on foreign iron in order to encourage home manufacture, *of which* 2,000 *tons malleable and pig are made from the Tuscan ore of Elba, which is carried, in order to find wood to smelt it, to Calabria.*

"If there were no other manufactures in the world, those of the Two Sicilies might lay claim to some degree of importance: with the exception of gloves, dressed skins, leather, when tanned with bark, and some of the plain silks made at Catania and Caserta, the soap, and the *macaroni* of Naples, and the common handicraft works of smiths, wrights, carpenters, tailors, dressmakers, and shoemakers, we consider every other manufacture in the kingdom as carried on to the injury of the whole country—to the agriculturists, to the landlords, to the vine growers, to the fishermen, and to the sailors.

"A mere enumeration of factories on paper will appear important to those who do not comprehend the comparative value of such establishments, and of the circumstances under which they are maintained. Under the fictitious principle of taxing the whole kingdom in order to commence, and afterwards to protect those factories, the following, according to Mr. Goodwin's enumeration, are in existence. That gentleman, whose information is generally correct and valuable, appreciates them at a far higher rate than we do; and we know of establishments in Lancashire, Yorkshire, Staffordshire, and Lanarkshire—in Westphalia, and we may include Switzerland, which, according to our knowledge personally, and the best information obtained in England and the continent, and in Naples and Sicily, are singly of more importance, not in the number of pieces, &c., produced, but in their intrinsic value, independent of premiums and protective duties, than all the woollen, cotton, linen, and hardware manufactures, respectively, of the kingdom of the Two Sicilies. We exclude from this estimate the ordinary coarse cloths made by the peasants for themselves, and the ordinary works of blacksmiths and other tradesmen.

"*The woollen factories of the whole kingdom* produce yearly about 6,000 *pieces of fine cloth* for the markets of Naples and Palermo, and from 60,000 *to* 80,000 *pieces of coarse cloth* (of every shape and length) for the use of the peasantry and fishermen.

"The *tanneries* render yearly 8,000 bales of leather, the quality of which depends much on the mode of preparation. Where bark is used, the leather is good and lasting; but where myrtle leaves are substituted, the product is spongy and rotten.

"The yearly production of organzine and sewing silk is about 145,000 lbs., whereof 120,000 lbs. are exported. Three hundred looms are commonly employed in the weaving of silks, chiefly for home consumption. The principal seat of this manufacture is Caserta, where 700 or 800 weavers produce annually from 2,000 to 3,000 pieces of silk, somewhat inferiour to the French and English.

"The *cotton manufacture* in both its branches is principally in the hands of *Swiss* and *German capitalists*. The spinning mills are those of David Vonwiller and Co., of Salerno, and of Escher and Co., of the same place; of Egg, at Piedmont, and of Mayer and Zollinger, at Scafati. All these mills, where the cotton spun is the growth of Naples and Sicily, contain 29,500 spindles, which produce yearly 9,900 cantars (1,940,000 lbs.) of yarn, from No. 3 to No. 32 English. At Vonwiller's, 9,000 spindles, moved by steam and water power, produce yearly 3,000 cantars (588,000 lbs.) of yarn, from No. 3 to No. 30 English. At Escher's, 10,000 spindles, moved by water, produce yearly 3,000 cantars (588,000 lbs.) of yarn, from No. 6 to No. 30 English. At Egg's, 7,500 spindles, moved by water, produce yearly 2,700 cantars (529,200 lbs.) of yarn, from No. 3 to No. 32 English. At Mayer and Zollinger's, 3,000 spindles, moved by steam, produce yearly 1,200 cantars (235,200 lbs.) of yarn, from No. 3 to No. 18.

"At all of these factories the hours of labour are thirteen daily. At Vonwiller's factory, the number of work-people is 200; viz, 100 men, 30 women, and 70 children. At Escher's, the number is 300; viz, 150 men, 50 women, and 100 children. The wages of labour are the same at both; viz, for men, from 35 to 45 grains a day (1s. 2d. to 1s. 6d.;) women, from 20 to 25 grains (8d. to 10d.;) children, from 12 to 18 (5d. to 7d.)

"The weaving mills are those of Schlapper, Wenner, and Co., of Salerno and Angri, Egg of Piedmont, Mayer and Zollinger of Scafati, and Angelo, Avelloni, and Co. of the same place. At these mills, 96,000 pieces of 10 canes (23¼ yards) of cotton cloth are produced yearly for dyeing and printing. At Schlapper, Wenner, and Co.'s, 140 power looms, moved by steam, and 250 hand looms, with the fly shuttle, produce 50,000 pieces yearly from 1,000 cantars (196,000 lbs.) of English yarn, of Nos. 30 to 40. At Egg's, 50 power looms, and 250 hand looms, with the fly shuttle, produce yearly from English yarn 25,000 pieces. At Mayer and Zollinger's, 250 hand looms, with the fly shuttle, use yearly 500 cantars (98,000 lbs.) Turkey red yarn, and produce 15,000 pieces. At Angelo, Avelloni, and Co.'s, 6,000 pieces are produced annually from Turkey red yarn. At the last two factories the weft is of Nos. 28 to 32, and the warp of Nos. 36 to 42 English, half and half. The hours of labour at all these factories are 13 daily, as in the spinning mills.

"The number of work-people employed in these factories is 2,650; viz, 620 men, 1,220 women, and 810 children. The wages of labour vary considerably.

Men earn,	per diem, from	20	to	40	grains, =	8d.	to	1s. 4d.
Women	"	15		30	"	6d.		1s. 0d.
Children	"	4		20	"	2d.		0s. 8d.

"The foremen and overlookers, who are foreigners, both in the spinning and weaving factories, receive from 3s. 4d. to 5s. a day.

"There are besides about 8,000 common hand looms, belonging to small manufacturers at Castellamare, Scafati, Angri, La Cara, and Naples, of which 7,500 have the common shuttle, and 500 the fly. These produce about 500,000 pieces a year, making, with the factory looms, a total production of 597,000 pieces.

"At the above factories the bleaching is done with English powder, and the printing with Swiss and English machinery. Most of the cotton drills, nankeens, &c., which formerly came from England, are now made in Naples.

"The linen manufacture gives employment to about 400 hand looms."

Sicily.—The principle manufactures of Sicily are those of leather, cotton, and silk.

"*Leather.*—Fifteen tanneries near Palermo, Messina, and Catania, dress about 70,000 hides and 40,000 skins. The Sicilian leather is superiour to the Neapolitan, but not equal to the English or French. The capital invested in the trade does not exceed £100,000. The hours of labour are 11 a day: the workmen earn from 8d. to 2s. 8d. per diem.

"*Cotton.*—There are two spinning factories in Sicily; one, moved by steam power, was set up at Trapani about two years ago, and the other, moved by horse power, at Palermo, is scarcely twelve months old. The former spins native cotton, from No. 16 to No. 20; the latter from No. 6 to No. 16. At both, adults earn about 1s. a day, and children about 3¼d. The hours of labour at the Trapani factory are thirteen, and at Palermo eleven. Weaving is chiefly done at Palermo by women, who earn about 1s. a day in making plain goods. Double wages are paid to men who make twills. Both men and women work twelve hours a day. The articles woven are nankeens, ginghams, (striped and checked,) long cloths, cotton duck, and mattressing. At Messina, weaving is done partly in factories, and partly at home. The factories are two, those of Ainis and Ruggieri. Gaetano Ainis, with 500 hand looms and fly shuttle, produces yearly, from 153,123 lbs. of English and Neapolitan yarn, about 37,500 pieces of cotton cloth of 28 yards each. He employs about 1,018 people; viz, 110 men, 574 women, and 334 children, who are paid by the piece, at the rate of 9½d. for white muslins, and 2s. 4d. for ginghams. A weaver, working from sunrise to sunset in summer, and from 5 A. M. to 7 P. M. in winter, can make from one to three pieces of the above articles in a week. Of the above quantity 52,500 pieces are destined for printing, in which department 268 persons are usually employed. The factory of the brothers Ruggieri is equal to that of Ainis in point of men and machinery, and perhaps superiour in amount of yearly production.

"At Catania the weaving is all done at home, by hand looms. Such weavers as have no loom of their own, hire one from the master manufacturer. The operatives are not subject to rules, but work as much and as long as they please. The hours of labour are fourteen a day, exclusive of one hour at rest. A first rate weaver will earn about 1s. a day. An ordinary one will get not more than 8d. or 10d. The work is not constant, but subject to stoppages, insomuch that the number of working days in the year averages only 266.

"*Silk.*—The silk manufacture is carried on in the cities of Palermo, Messina, Catania, and Aci Reale, where about 550 looms give employment to upwards of 1,200 weavers and others. In Catania, where the hours of labour are twelve a day, a woman can earn, as a reeler or picker, 6d., and a girl, as a wheel turner or sorter, 4d. A man, as a weaver working at home, can earn from 1s. 2d. to 1s. 6d. a day in summer, and proportionally less in winter, as he can work by daylight only. At Palermo every part of the process, from the reeling to the weaving, is carried on by a Mr. Pavin, who employs about twenty male adults, and sixty women and girls. A woman, working nine hours a day, may earn about 8d. in reeling; a girl may earn about 4d. in turning, or 2d. in winding. A male weaver, working ten hours a day, may earn in plain fabrics 1s. 4d., in fancy work 1s. 8d., and in damasked 2s. 8d., out of which sums he must pay his piecer 4d. The articles woven are satins plain and striped, broche, gros de Naples plain and checked, taffety, tartan handkerchiefs, and bareges with open-work."

Woollen cloths no longer come from England: supplies chiefly received from Belgium, France, and Prussia. Selling price about 12 ducats per cane, duty 4.30 per cane.

Linens.—Very few come from England—chiefly from Switzerland and Germany. Selling price about 1.60 ducats per cane, duty 42½ grains per cane (3 canes = 7 yards.)

When the the duty is charged by weight, the case or package is also included in the weight paid for.

For the tariff, as far as we have thought it necessary to introduce the rates of duty, we refer to page 943 of our last number. It is nearly prohibitory, ranging from 30 to 123 per cent.

The tables of the commerce and navigation of the United States do not give any account of our trade with Naples proper, so we presume we have none.

We annex an account of our import and export trade with Sicily, which, it will be seen, is very inconsiderable, the former being only $462,773, and the latter of domestic origin being only $75,624, and of foreign $278,692, total $354,316, carried on by tonnage, as follows: American, entered in 1844, 14,161 tons; cleared, 1,045: Foreign, entered, 7,004 tons; cleared, 3,286.

Imports from Sicily into the United States for the year ending 30*th June*, 1844.

Dye woods,	$1,315	Burgundy wine,	$6
Crude brimstone,	32,379	Spanish wines,	48
All other articles, duty free, not enumerated,	38,528	Sicily wines,	11,681
Cloths and cassimeres,	462	Almonds,	9,630
Ready made clothing,	4	Currants,	2,843
Leather not specified,	24	Figs,	343
Earthen and stone ware,	20	Raisins,	606
Gold and silver manufactures,	39	Nuts,	23,441
Corks,	204	Rags of all kinds,	7,895
Non-enumerated articles from 1 to 35 per cent. ad valorem,	286,871	Bottles,	7
		Leather gloves,	29
Sewing silk,	43,780	Salt,	2,669
Other silks,	49		
			$462,773

Exports from the United States to Sicily in the year ending June 30, 1844.

Staves and heading,	$12,227	Lead,	$4,173
Rosin and turpentine,	1,383	Nails,	406
Skins and furs,	610	Refined sugar,	10,498
Cheese,	186	Cotton,	12,188
Rice,	1,890		
Tobacco,	5,306		$75,624
Wax,	26,369	Foreign exports,	278,692
Tobacco manufactured,	376		
			$354,316

Our last number contains, under the head of "Some Account of Naples," the Neapolitan Tariff, as far as we consider of importance. We now annex a tariff of the leading imports into Sicily.

ISLAND OF SICILY.

Calculation relative to the Duties on leading Imports into Sicily, drawn up by Mr. Dickinson, of Palermo, in 1839, *for Mr. Macgregor.*

ARTICLES.	COST PRICES.								DUTY.—Ad valorem.					
	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.		per cent.	
Broadcloths,	0	10	0	to	0	16	0	per yard	0	6	4	per yd. or	40 to	50
Lastings, 3-4 wide,	2	15	0		3	10	0	per piece	0	17	0	per pce.	25	30
Bombazets, 4-4 wide,	1	15	0		2	0	0	do	0	17	0	do.	25	40
Saje Spinate, 3-4 wide,	1	8	0		1	10	0	do	0	18	8	do.	50	60
Cassinets, 6-4 wide,	0	1	6		0	1	8	per yard	0	0	9	per yd.	30	40
Thibets or figures, 6-4 wide,	2	15	0		3	0	0	per piece	1	1	0	per pce.	25	30
Velveteens, 3-4, ell wide,	0	1	3		0	1	4	per yard	0	0	8	per yd.	40	50
Ditto, 1-2 ell wide,	0	0	9		0	0	10	do.	0	0	5	do.		
Moleskins,	0	0	10		0	1	0	do.	0	0	7½	do.	70	80
Shirtings, white, and 40 yards,	0	13	0		0	15	0	per piece	0	10	3	per pce.	70	80
Domestics,	0	0	4½		0	0	5½	per yard	0	0	3½	per yd.	50	60
Cambrics or sacconets, 6-4 wide,	0	8	0		0	12	0	per piece	0 0	4 6	0 8	Cambrics Sacconets	50	60
Printed muslins, 9-8 wide,	0	12	0		0	19	0	do.	0	14	0	per pce.	50	100
Printed handerchiefs, 9-8 wide,	0	4	6		0	5	6	per dozen	0	4	4	per doz.	60	80
Sheet-iron,	12	10	0		13	0	0	per ton	7	13	10	per ton	40	50
Saltpetre, refined,	1	9	0		1	10	0	per cwt.	0	11	6	per cwt.	40	50
Tin plates, assorted,	1	14	0		1	15	0	per box	0	13	6	per box	35	40
Sugar, refined, loaf,	......				......			......	......			......	75	80
Ditto " crushed,	1	14	0		1	15	0	cwt. in bnd	1	17	4	per cwt.	80	120
Ditto, East India,	2	1	0		2	3	0	per cwt.	1	17	4	do.		
Coffee,	2	5	0		2	10	0	do.	1	10	9	do.	70	75
Cloves,	0	1	2		0	1	6	per lb.	0	0	10	per lb.	75	80
Cassia Lignea,	3	0	0		3	5	0	per cwt.	4	5	5	per cwt.	120	130
Pepper,	0	0	3		0	0	4½	per lb.	0	0	1½	per lb.	30	35
Tobacco, leaf,	0	0	6		0	0	8	do.	0	0	3	do.	50	65
Codfish in North America,	0	9	0		0	12	0	per qutl.	0	7	8	per cwt.	60	75
Rice, East India,	0	13	6		0	15	0	per cwt.	0	3	5	do.	25	30

That our readers may know, as exactly as we can give it them, the trade of Naples and Sicily, we extract the following tables from the work of Macgregor, to which we have alluded :

Statement of the Value of Articles Exported from the City of Naples in the year 1840:

ARTICLES.	United States.	The Baltic.	Belgium and Germany.	France.	Great Britain and Colonies.	Italian States.	Mediterranean Countries.	TOTAL.
	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Argols and cream of tartar,	......	1,152	......	2,592	12,812	1,560	......	18,116
Coral,	......	......	......	42	......	569	......	611
Corn, grain, and pulse,	......	......	......	11	......	10,233	......	10,244
Essences,	......	......	6,000	53,800	17,295	19,510	......	96,605
Fruits, dry,	54	2,655	......	9,252	1,147	2,445	48	15,601
Gloves,	......	80	4	642	236	9,836	......	10,798
Hemp,	......	......	......	6,723	......	559	202	7,484
Hoops and staves,	......	......	......	312	......	5	2	319
Lemon juice,	......	......	......	1,831	......	43	......	1,874
Linseed,	......	60	267	11,907	5,509	125	......	17,868
Licorice paste,	......	5,134	2,028	18,387	9,606	1,982	7	37,144
Macaroni,	......	17	67	425	292	322	120	1,243
Olive oil,	......	78	12	11,552	30	18,746	944	31,362
Rags,	......	......	......	......	......	1,868	......	1,868
Silks, { Raw,	......	......	......	150,159	46,039	12,979	......	209,177
Silks, { Prepared,	......	11	......	9,049	......	41,022	......	50,082
Silks, { Manufactured,	......	......	......	......	......	568	......	568
Skins,	......	......	......	5,080	505	4,857	......	10,442
Tallow,	......	400	282	1,560	1,802	800	......	4,844
Wine and spirits,	......	2 798	276	1,312	7,025	4,344	182	15,937
Wool,	......	1,592	260	16,934	17,124	16,359	......	52,269
Miscellaneous,	......	715	40	2,767	4,527	9,959	126	18,134
Total,	54	14,692	9,236	304,337	123,949	158,691	1.631	612,590

Statement of the Value of Articles Imported into the City of Naples in the year 1840:

	ARTICLES.	United States.	The Baltic.	Belgium and Germany.	Brazil and States of the Rio de la Plata.	France.	Great Britain and Colonies.	Italian States.	Mediterranean Countries.	TOTAL.
		£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£	£
Colonial Produce.	Cochineal,	7,200	....	....	....	1,251	998	805	....	10,254
	Cocoa,	1,925	....	....	....	242	1,176	5,758	....	9,101
	Coffee,	2,046	440	1,005	546	....	....	....	....	4,037
	Indigo,	....	....	....	....	4,171	33,887	15,099	....	53,157
	Pepper,	122	....	....	....	660	258	6,024	3,826	10,890
	Rum,	....	....	....	112	84	2,492	1,944	....	4,632
	Sugar and molasses,	78,936	106,788	491	9,936	3,970	13,124	2,438	5,916	221,599
	Tea,	....	....	....	....	119	156	298	....	573
	Woods,	357	....	...	....	3,929	75	1,257	....	5,618
	Cottons,	....	....	807	....	19,923	134,980	46,589	445	202,744
Manufactures.	Cotton yarn,	....	....	....	....	218	157,223	3,513	....	160,954
	Cotton mixed with linen and wool,	...	....	749	....	2,918	10,974	3,766	202	18,609
	Earthenware and glass,	....	....	2,912	....	1,652	1,930	771	....	7,265
	Fancy goods,	....	....	20	....	2,644	100	120	....	2,884
	Hardwares,	....	30	874	....	4,319	53,000	8,704	....	66,927
	Linens,	....	....	2,619	....	3,676	19,938	598	....	26,831
	Silks,	....	....	4	....	46,477	1,761	1,489	....	49,731
	Woollens,	....	....	39,990	....	51,348	131,111	38,018	1,364	261,831
Miscellaneous.	Brass,	....	....	750	....	730	....	....	....	1,480
	Coals,	....	....	316	....	2,131	4,479	....	....	6,926
	Copper,	....	....	1,088	....	285	3,975	1,495	....	6,843
	Drugs and colours,	....	....	....	....	549	3,245	4,508	....	8,302
	Fish, salted,	....	22,556	....	....	5,520	113,638	342	5,860	147,916
	Hides,	....	....	106	900	10,532	31,900	14,150	583	58,171
	Iron,	....	1,300	480	....	1,339	53,712	442	....	57,273
	Lead,	....	....	140	....	5,466	....	854	9,078	15,538
	Leather,	....	....	....	720	19,512	2,394	8,802	....	31,428
	Pitch and tar,	....	10,619	....	....	296	3,346	2,266	....	16,527
	Steel,	....	....	5,338	....	128	416	....	....	5,882
	Tin plates and bars,	....	....	28	....	264	5,229	945	....	6,466
	Wax,	....	....	2,043	....	1,368	8,842	16,312	168	28,733
	Other articles,	....	....	324	....	4,388	7,817	4,404	790	17,723
	Total,	90,586	141,733	60,084	12,214	200,109	802,176	191,711	28,232	1,526,845

Foreign goods are imported into Naples under the English, French, Spanish, and Sicilian flags. By

Gross Return of British and Foreign Trade at the Principal Ports within the Consulate of Naples during the year 1841 :

NATIONS.	ARRIVALS.			DEPARTURES.		
	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Crews.	Vessels.	Tonnage.	Crews.
(NAPLES.)						
British,	133	20,248	1,182	118	17,368	1,030
French,	67*	13,975	1,309	67	13,975	1,309
Spanish,	1	85	8	1	85	8
Sardinian,	52†	8,682	868	52	8,682	868
Tuscan,	66‡	12,492	1,249	66	12,492	1,249
Roman,	3	237	23	3	237	23
Austrian,	2	378	21	2	378	21
Swedish,	4	1,150	52	4	1,150	52
Dutch,	1	154	11	1	154	11
Danish,	1	75	7	1	75	7
Russian,	4	1,378	62	4	1,378	62
Greek,	1	115	10	1	115	10
American,	1	367	16	1	367	16
Total,	336	59,336	4,818	321	56,456	4,667
(GALLIPOLI.)						
British,	14	1,685	108	14	1,685	108
Neapolitan,	41	6,856	453	41	6,856	453
Total,	55	8,541	563	55	8,541	563
(BARLETTA.)						
British,	20	3,384	169	17	2,865	140
Neapolitan,	1	299	16	1	299	16
Total,	21	3,683	185	18	3,164	156
(CASTEL-A-MARE.)						
British,	7	1,546	72	6	1,369	59
Neapolitan,	5	1,380	80	5	1,380	80
Total,	12	2,926	152	11	2,749	139

* 48 of the 67 vessels are steamers. † 35 of the 52 vessels are steamers.
‡ 41 of the 66 vessels are steamers.

REVIEW OF THE COMMERCE OF SICILY IN 1840.

The general commerce of Sicily with all countries has been greater in 1840 than it was in 1839. In 1839 it amounted to £1,919,491 ; in 1840 it amounted to £2,046,226 : making an increase of £126,735.

This increase has taken place upon the imports. In 1839 the imports

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the last, all goods are imported that come from non-privileged countries, i. e. from all others than England, France, and Spain.

About two-thirds of the domestic produce are exported under the national flag. Of olive oil two-fifteenths only are shipped under foreign flags.

The institution of bounties has enriched importers and foreigners at the cost of the Sicilian public. In 1836 premiums were paid by the treasury of Naples on eleven Baltic or German Ocean, and six Indian, or rather American voyages, amounting to 80,000 ducats, (£13,333,) of which sum one part went to the importing merchants, and the other to the exporting countries in the shape of extra taxes on the flag, and extra duties on the imports from Naples. The value of the freights thus obtained for the Neapolitan marine was about 26,000 ducats, or one-third of the premiums paid out of the public purse. No benefit was reaped by the public consumer. The price of sugar, for instance, imported from the United States of America, (which are included under the name of the Indies,) was not lowered one farthing in the pound.—NOTE BY CONSUL GOODWIN.

amounted to £568,998; in 1840, £744,442: making an increase of £175,444.

On the exports, there has been a decrease. In 1839 the exports amounted to £1,350,493; in 1840, £1,301,784: making a decrease of £48,709.

Therefore, the nett increase on the general commerce amounted to £126,735.

The following is a summary of the Imports and Exports for 1840:

COUNTRIES.	Imports.	Exports.	TOTAL.
America, U. S.,	£40,812	£244,720	£285,532
Baltic,	15,906	37,358	53,264
Belgium and Germany,	88,292	128,839	217,131
Brazils and Plate,	..	34,950	34,950
France,	131,890	272,494	404,384
Great Britain and Colonies,	288,228	425,819	714,047
Italian States,	111,278	95,062	206,340
Other countries,	68,036	62,542	130,578
Total,	£744,442	£1,301,784	£2,046,226

SECRETARY WALKER'S REPORT,

CIRCULARS, AND TABLES.

In our last number we gave a general review of this Report, and then stated that we should again refer to it in detail. This we propose now to do, and shall take up several articles, with a view to show how utterly without foundation are the allegations made in the Report, according to the testimony it contains. It will be in vain that the author of it will attempt to escape. We shall as much as possible confine ourselves to facts, in answer to certain allegations which we shall first quote. And as we are desirous more particularly to show the operation of the tariff on the South, we shall commence on such articles as will be admitted by all to stand in that category—and as much as possible in *that alone*.

With this view, we begin with cotton bagging. The Secretary, in his Report, in naming this subject, makes the following wholesale assertion, which we shall prove, from his own witnesses, is without the shadow of foundation.

"The duty on cotton bagging is equivalent to $55\frac{20}{100}$ per cent. ad valorem on the Scotch bagging, and $123\frac{11}{100}$ per cent. on the gunny bag; and yet the whole revenue from these duties has fallen to $66,064 50. Nearly the entire amount of this enormous tax makes no addition to the revenue but inures to the benefit of about thirty manufacturers." What will our readers think of a public officer, holding the high station of Secretary of the Treasury, who should be so ignorant of a subject as we shall presently show Mr. Walker to be, unless he shall choose the other horn of the dilemma in which he has placed himself, namely, the deliberate intention of deceiving the public on this subject. We should be sorry to permit ourselves to believe the latter for one moment, but the allegation has been made, and we shall present the testimony. The Report is a public document, and the public are entitled to all that it contains, it being our duty to show how the evidence agrees with the assumptions of the Report.

Kentucky is the State where cotton bagging is made; of course we must look for the facts respecting it from thence.

Here follows all we can find in the Report on that subject. Question No. 14 of Circular No. 2, is in the following words. Have you any manufacturing establishments in your State? and if so, of what kind are they, what is their number and what amount of capital is invested in them? what descriptions of goods do they make, and what has been the profit on their investment for the last three years? Are the present duties necessary to keep them in operation with profit? if not, what amount, if any, would be required to give a profit equal in amount to the average profit of growing the great staples of the State, for the last three years or the ten preceding?

The first person who answers this question in Kentucky is Lewis Sanders, of Grass Hills, and he says:

"Manufactures cotton bagging and bale rope sufficient to supply the entire United States, including Texas, and at a price lower than the foreign article can be introduced. We have numerous iron works making the various kinds of castings, bar, rolled and slit iron and nails, mostly consumed in the State; negro clothing sold in large quantities to the cotton and sugar planters. This article is made of cotton warp filled with common wool; no foreign article can compete with it. Some cotton factories for spinning and weaving; productions mostly consumed in the State; a reduction of the Tariff would but slightly if at all affect the interest."

The next witness in Kentucky, produced in the Report, is A. Beatty, of Prospect Hill. He answers question No. 14, as follows:

"The manufacturing establishments of this State are chiefly iron foundries, forges, slitting and rolling mills, manufactures for steamboat machinery, &c., flouring mills, oil mills, &c., bagging factories, factories for jeans, carpeting, &c., and for spinning wool and cotton. Has no means of estimating the capital invested. The existing duties are essential to the successful operations of all these factories, except flouring and oil mills."

Thomas S. Forman, the last witness, from Louisville, Jefferson county, Kentucky, says:

"The cost of manufacturing bagging has decreased since 1827 from ten to five cents per yard; the cost of hemp in a yard of bagging has decreased, in the same time, nine cents per yard; the two amount to a decrease of 14 cents per yard to the consumer, which is confirmed by reference to our sales book, &c. 1837 to 1840, sales ranged from 24 to 28 cents per yard—now, 9 to 11 cents per yard.

"The bagging price answered above. Rope as follows: 1839, 9 cents per lb.; 1840, 8 cents per lb.; 1841, 10 cents per lb.; 1842, 6 cents per lb.; 1843, 5½ cents per lb.; 1844, 4½ cents per lb.; 1845, 4 cents per lb."

In a note at page 109 of the Report, Document No. 6, of the House of Representatives, (Mr. Walker's Report, evidence and tables) Mr. Forman, who made returns to the Secretary of the Treasury, says: "Under existing affairs, a tariff of duty on our fabrics is of no moment to the manufacturer in this country, because the unprecedented competition, both in the growth of hemp and the manufacture thereof into bagging and rope, has reduced the price of these articles below what they could be imported at, without the payment of duty; but should there be a great failure of the crop of hemp, or any other cause by which it should be enhanced materially in price, then no reasonable ad valorem duty would amount to a sufficient protection, provided the East India bagging can be bought at 12 or 13 cents, as is represented. Even at the present low price of hemp, it is half the cost of bagging and three fourths the cost of rope; the Honourable Secretary can therefore see what would be the effect, were it suddenly to advance to two or three times its present price. We would prefer to compete with the importer of foreign fabrics than with our own home manufacturers. Let the importer fix selling prices, and we will follow him; but we would, with diffidence, suggest that it is for the interest of the consumer to let the tariff on our fabrics as it stands remain. When the tariff bill of 1842 was pending, we suggested to the chairman of its committee, 3½ cents as sufficient protection, which would have been cheerfully acceded to by the Southern delegation in Congress; but he showed the letter to some of the Kentucky delegation in Congress, and they protested against it, and it was therefore dropped. Now that a tariff has been fixed, and under its operation bagging and rope are far lower to the consumer than they have ever been, we would respectfully say, 'let well enough alone.'"

Now these are the only witnesses produced on the subject of the actual state of the production of cotton bagging; and surely we may leave such testimony as this without remark, as nothing we could possibly add would more fully show the manner in which the Hon. Secretary's testimony completely nullifies his assertion, that "nearly the entire amount therefore of this enormous tax makes no addition to the revenue, but inures to the benefit of about thirty manufacturers! What enormous tax can the Secretary mean, inures to such benefit, when all his own witnesses who are examined on the subject state that the articles of cotton bagging and bale rope are cheaper than they ever were, and than they could be imported!! And upon which false assumption he has the hardihood to ask for a drawback of a duty on five-sixths of the cotton and bale rope used, because it is exported—when he himself previously admits no such duty was ever paid—and his witnesses say, were there no duty it could not be at present imported, because the home made bagging and bale rope are sold at a less price than the foreign could be sold at, if it paid no duty whatever!

We come now to the article of sugar, and we call upon Mr. Edmund J. Forstall, one of Mr. Walker's witnesses, he being a resident of N. Orleans.

This witness's testimony we deem of the very highest importance, because it goes fully into a comparative statement of the cotton and sugar business, and is in other respects highly interesting. We have, therefore, concluded to transfer the whole of it to our pages, believing that we cannot better show the fallacy of the idea, that the tariff injures the South, than through this testimony.

STATEMENT OF EDMUND J. FORSTALL, OF NEW ORLEANS.

Edm. J. Forstall, of New Orleans, merchant, to the questions of the honourable the Secretary of the Treasury, answers as follows:

Question 1. What agricultural products are raised in your State, and which, if any, of the staples of cotton, rice, or tobacco?

Answer. The agricultural products of the State of Louisiana consist chiefly of two articles, to wit: sugar and cotton. Cotton, rice, hay, potatoes, &c., are cultivated upon the same estates, but with a view altogether to their own supplies, the quantity varying according to the value of the great staple articles; that is to say, when prices of cotton and sugar are remunerating, the planter directs the whole productive power of his estate to them, and trusts to the western country for his corn and other provisions; and when it is otherwise, he raises his own corn and other provisions.

Question 2. What portion of its capital is engaged in their production?

Answer. It is next to impossible to arrive, even by approximation, at any thing like a correct estimate of the capital invested in sugar estates, because of the great mutations that have taken place in their ownership during the operation of the Compromise bill and the instability produced by the tampering with our revenue laws. Those of our planters who have been able to retain their estates, value them at their cost to them, whilst hundreds of estates previous to the tariff of 1842 had been forced upon the market at one-half and even one-third of their original cost, and in no few cases turned into pasture grounds; the slaves thereto attached being sold to a more favoured industry. In order, however, to give an idea, sufficient for all practical purposes, of our agricultural interests, the following statistics are submitted, taken from the census of the United States of 1840:

Sugar Crop of 1839–40.

Parishes.	Pounds.	Parishes.	Pounds.
Orleans,	10,000	West Baton Rouge,	1,947,400
Plaquemines,	10,329,000	East Baton Rouge,	2,466,000
St. Bernard,	4,308,000	St. Tammany,	360,000
St. Charles,	10,000,000	Pointe Coupée,	411,000
St. John Baptist,	11,000,000	Jefferson,	5,134,500
St. James,	15,157,000	Livingston,	520
Ascension,	14,568,000	Calcasieu,	60,000
Assumption,	6,520,000	Lafayette,	1,016,000
Lafourche Interiour,	9,945,000	St. Landry,	400,000
Terrebonne,	6,875,600	St. Martin,	2,474,700
Iberville,	3,728,000	St. Mary,	13,291,000
Total,			119,947,720

or, in round numbers, 119,947 hhds., and 6,000,000 gallons molasses.

Cotton Crop of 1839–40.

Parishes.	Pounds.		Bales.
St. James,	1,032,950	....or bales of 450 lbs. each,	2,295
Ascension,	1,028,050	" "	2,284
Assumption,	2,106,700	" "	4,682
Lafourche Interiour,	1,690,000	" "	3,755
Terrebonne,	1,003,850	" "	2,231
Iberville,	3,552,000	" "	7,893
West Baton Rouge,	3,180,875	" "	7,069
East Baton Rouge,	4,016,183	" "	8,925
Washington,	375,200	" "	834
Madison,	5,378,610	" "	11,952
Carrol,	8,476,800	" "	18,842
St. Tammany,	140,000	" "	311
Concordia,	19,490,600	" "	42,312
Pointe Coupée,	6,294,726	" "	13,988
West Feliciana,	16,247,797	" "	36,106
East Feliciana,	8,442,000	" "	18,760
St. Helena,	925,176	" "	2,056
Livingston,	250,445	" "	557
	152,545,368		338,989

Brought forward,...bales	338,989
Add Caldwell and Claiborne, for which return has been made, and which worked nearly 3,000 slaves, at least...................................	12,000
Total,...	350,989

Number of slaves attached to the sugar estates, including all ages and servants,..	50,670
Number of slaves attached to the cotton estates, including all ages and servants,..	93,220
Total of slaves attached to both,..........................	143,890

It is well to remark here, that in 1840 the sugar parishes produced cotton to the extent of 52,762 bales.

By the preceding returns it appears that the average product of each hand, all ages included, was 2,367 lbs. sugar, and about 100 gallons molasses; and the average product of each hand, as above, on the cotton estate, was 1,636 lbs. cotton.

The expenses on a well-conducted sugar estate are estimated per slave, of all ages, at $75 per ann.; and on a cotton estate at $30 per ann.

The crop of sugar of	1840–41	was, in round numbers,....		120,000	hhds.
" "	1841–42	"	"	125,000	"
" "	1842–43	"	"	140,316	"
" "	1843–44	"	"	100,346	"
" "	1844–45	"	"	204,913	"

There are no data to show the corresponding crops of cotton during the above four years.

Question 3. To what extent is its commercial, mechanical, manufacturing, and navigation interests, immediately connected with or dependant upon them?

Answer. To the same extent that agricultural products *are connected with or dependant upon the commercial, mechanical, manufacturing, and shipping interests*, and, it may be added, the daily labourer; because,

The planter cannot dispense with the merchant, who, directly or indirectly, is the interposed agent between the consumer and producer—

With the mechanic, for the erection of his sugar works—

With the manufacturer, for engines to grind his canes, or to gin his cotton; for instruments of husbandry to till his lands; for clothing for his people; for sugar pans and steam apparatus of all kinds, &c., &c.—

With steamers, vessels, and crafts of all kinds, to distribute his produce to their customers throughout the world—

With carmen, and daily labourers, to discharge such products from steamers and other vessels, when reaching their respective destinations, until they are finally consumed, &c., &c.

Without a combination of all those interests, not one of which can be touched without reacting upon the others, commerce and agriculture would soon return to their primitive condition.

Question 4. What has been the annual average profit on capital employed in their production, on well-conducted farms, or plantations, for the last three years, since the passage the tariff of 1842, including the crop of that year, and deducting all the expenses incident to the production of the articles, their preparation for market, the transportation to the place of sale, and the sales themselves?

Answer. The same difficulty presents itself in this question as in the second; the absence of fixed data to establish the real capital invested, precludes the possibility of ascertaining the nett annual profits thereupon.

The following facts may, however, enable the Treasury to approximate the information it is seeking:

In 1828, the sugar estates of Louisiana numbered..................	308	
Of which were worked by horse power,............	226	
And by steam,..................................	82	
The slaves of all ages attached to the above estates numbered about 21,000.		
These estates, at that epoch, were valued at.......................		$34,000,000
From 1828 to 1830, there were established 383 new sugar estates, making the number of estates then............................	691	
The slaves attached to the above estates then numbered about 36,000.		
These additional estates were supposed to have required an additional outlay of...		16,000,000
Making, at that epoch, the capital invested in the sugar industry.....		$50,000,000
In 1841–42, the sugar estates actually working, or preparing to be so, numbered...	668	
Steam power, ...	361	
Horse power, ...	307	
Slaves then attached to said industry, as per census of the Federal Government, 50,670.		
Being a decrease in the number of sugar estates, compared to 1830, of 23; an increase in steam power of 279 engines and mills, and of slaves 14,670.		
By the Document hereunto appended, (No. 1,) it will be seen that for the year 1844–45 the number of sugar estates has reached.........	762	
Steam power,.................................	408	
Horse power,..................................	354	
There not being any data as to the increase of slaves during the last three years, let it be supposed that the number (although it is known to have greatly augmented) is the same as when ascertained in 1840—say 50,670.		
This gives, over the estimates of 1830, 71 new estates, 321 engines and mills, and 14,670 slaves, which, at a low estimate, represent at least		$10,000,000
This would give for the whole capital at present invested in the sugar industry...		$60,000,000

Should this amount, which is considered a low approximation of the original investment, be considered as the capital, then the nett profits of the sugar planters, taken collectively, may be arrived at as follows:

Crop of 1841–42, as before shown, 120,000,000 lbs.—at 4 cts. (the average price in March) on plantations,.....	$4,800,000
6,000,000 gallons molasses, at 13 cts.,...................... . .	780,000
	$5,580,000
Deduct expenses, say $75 per each slave attached to said estates, as before explained—say on 50,670,..........................	3,800,250
Nett profit,.....................................	$1,779,750

or about 2 95-100 per cent. on the capital of $60,000,000, to cover interest, casualties by the death of slaves, who form a part of the capital, &c., &c.

Crop of 1842–44, 140,316,000 lbs.—at 3⅞, (the average as above,)	$5,437,245
7,015,800 gallons molasses, at 12 cts.,	841,896
	$6,279,141
Deduct expenses, as above, which are always running, be the crop what it may,	3,800,250
Nett profit,	$2,478,891
or 4 13-100 per cent., to cover as above, &c.	
Crop of 1843–44, 100,346,000 lbs. sugar—at an average, on plantations, of 6 cts.,	$6,020,760
5,000,000 gallons molasses, at 20 cts.,	1,000,000
	$7,020,760
Deduct expenses, as above,	3,800,250
Nett profit,	$3,220,510
or a small fraction over 5½ per cent., to cover as above, &c.	
Crop of 1844–45, 204,913,000 lbs. sugar, at 4 cts.,	$8,196,520
9,000,000 gallons molasses, at 12 cts.,	1,080,000
	$9,276,520
Deduct expenses, as above,	3,800,250
Nett profit,	$5,476,270
or a small fraction over 9 per cent., as above, to cover interest, &c.	

Remarks.—The working expenses of a sugar estate being represented by $75 per slave of all ages, and this sum in the aggregate representing a very large amount, reference is requested to the annexed pro forma estimate, (No. 2,) giving the details of such expenses. The honourable the present Secretary of the Treasury, having been once a sugar planter, can appreciate their correctness.

The average prices of sugars are taken from the "New Orleans Prices Current," in March of each year. The crop of 1844–45 did not average more than 4 cents for the planter, although after March prices advanced gradually to 6 and 7 cents. Speculators, chiefly from New York, on ascertaining the enormous deficiency in the Cuba crop, had swept the market of the balance of the crop, or very nearly so.

COTTON.

There are no data, whereby to establish, even by approximation, the capital invested in the cultivation of cotton; but, knowing the number of hands attached thereto, and the yield per hand, in 1840, and being in possession of the same information regarding sugar, the following comparative statement may be sufficient for all practical purposes in view:

The answer to the second question shows:

1st. The number of slaves of all ages attached to the sugar industry, per census of the Federal Government, to have been, in 1840, 50,670; and the number attached to the cotton industry to have been 93,220.

2d. That the crop of sugar for 1840 amounted to 119,947,720 lbs., and about 6,000,000 gallons molasses—being per hand, of all ages, 2,367 lbs. sugar, and about 120 gallons molasses: and that the crop of cotton for 1840 amounted to 152,545,368 lbs.—being per hand, as above, 1,636 lbs. cotton.

Which leads to the following result:

2,367 lbs. sugar, at an average of 4 cts	$94 68
120 gallons molasses, at an average of 15 cts.,	18 00
	$112 68
Deduct expenses, as before stated,	75 00
Nett product per hand,	$37 68

1,636 lbs. cotton, supposing an average of 6 cts.,	$98 16
Deduct working expenses,	30 0
Nett product per hand,	$68 16

Which gives for the product, per hand, of cotton, at 6 cents, nearly 80 per cent more than sugar.

Crop of 1844–45, yield 204,000,000 lbs. sugar, being per hand 4,026 lbs., at 4 cts.,	$161 04
molasses, per hand, 180 gallons, at 12 cts.,	21 60
	$182 64
Deduct expenses, as before,	75 00
Product per hand,	$107 64

1,636 lbs. cotton, at the average now current, say 8 cts.,	$130 88
Deduct expenses,	30 00
Product per hand,	$100 88

In all these calculations, interest on capital is not included.

But the cotton crop of 1840, which is the basis of the foregoing calculations, was a full average one, whilst that of sugar for 1844–45 was unusually large; taking, therefore, the average of the last four years, say 1842–45, the comparative result will be found to be as follows:

Average crop 1842–45, 145,143,000 lbs. sugar, or per hand 2,864 lbs., at 4½ cts., the average on plantations,	$128 86
molasses, per hand, 143 gallons, at 15 cts.,	21 45
	$150 31
Deduct working expenses, as above,	75 00
Product per slave, as above,	$75 31

1,636 lbs. cotton, supposing an average of 6½ cts. for the last 4 years,...	$106 34
Deduct working expenses,	30 00
	$76 34

From which it would appear, that when sugars average 4½ cents and cotton 6½ cents, and both crops are equally good, the result per slave, attached to each industry, has been nearly the same these last four years; with this very great difference, however, as to the capital invested, that the buildings and gin required for a large cotton establishment seldom exceed a cost of $5,000, whilst the buildings and machinery required for a large sugar estate involve a cost of $20,000 and upwards.

Remarks.—To arrive at the effective hands on a sugar estate, a deduction of at least one-third should be made from the gang attached to it, for children under ten or twelve years of age, and hands rendered useless by old age. The slaves attached to the sugar industry, as before shown, numbering 50,670, represent 33,780 efficient hands. No notice is taken of the lands, the value of which, for all practical purposes, may be considered the same, whether cultivated in sugar-cane or cotton.

In comparing the result of the sugar with that of the cotton industry, it has been supposed that both have been working to their full power; which is far from being the case, as will be explained in the answers to the next interrogatory.

It may be said that cotton has arrived at its climax for production, and that ever since 1840, lands, clearing and draining, and working power, have been made to harmonize; the aggregate result per slave, therefore, represents a sufficiently correct account of individual management for all practical deductions. The reverse is the case with the sugar interest, which can only be considered as issuing out of its torpor; although its strides have been gigantic these last three years. 1st. There have been established, these last three years, 94 estates; the change from one culture to another is gradual; it takes at least three years before cane plants can be obtained in sufficient quantity to work with advantage; in the meantime the planter cultivates both cotton and the sugar-cane. 2d. More than one-half of the sugar estates still existing in 1842, had been gradually sinking into insignificance, from the want of means or credit, on the part of their owners, to work them. These can hardly be said to have even now attained any thing like a full average yield; hence, although the production per slave is strictly correct, as applied to the sugar industry in the aggregate, still it does not convey any thing like a correct idea of the true position of that industry, when applied to an estate working to its full power, with a skilful manager at its head.

Where the grinding and boiling power, and the cutting and transporting of the canes to the mill, are made to harmonize, so as to insure rapidity and constant working during the process of boiling and granulation, no crop in the United States is safer than that of sugar. It can be secured against all injury by ice, eight years out of ten. Many estates now average 15 hhds. per day, commencing on the 10th October; which, for 60 days, gives 900 hhds. The grinding on such estates, if required by the state of the weather, can be completed by the 10th December, until which time there is little or no danger of injury by ice. Ten hhds. per day, on smaller estates, conducted in the same manner, is an ordinary day's work, which gives, within the same time, 600 hhds. As, however, the cane, in this climate, continues maturing until it is killed by the ice, the experienced planter is guided in his operations by the appearance of the weather, and pushes or retards his grinding accordingly, as the season is advancing; thereby combining safety with as great a yield of saccharine matter as possible.

On such estates, during the past year, the yield per slave has been seven hhds. sugar and 350 gallons molasses.

In the island of Cuba the largest yield of Muscovado (the same kind as Louisiana) per slave, on the best conducted estates, is stated at 5,000 lbs., or about five hhds.

A reference to the state papers of the House of Commons, for 1808, (page 261,) will show the yield per slave, at that epoch, to have been, on the best and most favoured plantations, one hhd. of 14 cwt., or about 1,568 lbs.; and the working expenses on such estate to have been per slave, all ages, $79 60; and the cost of such production to have been (page 261) £1 0s. 10d. per cwt.

Last year's yield, however, was an extraordinary one, as before observed; the cane having matured up to the last joint, which does not happen once in ten years.

The average yield of estates working to their full power may be assumed to be, per slave, five hhds. and 250 gallons molasses—which would give the following result:

5,000 pounds of sugar, at 4 cts.,	$200 00
250 gallons of molasses, at 15 cts.,	37 50
	$237 50
Deduct expenses, as before,	75 00
Product per slave,	$162 50

Which shows that on a well-conducted sugar estate, with means on the part of its owner to work it to advantage, four cents for sugar is as good a return per slave as ten cents for cotton; and hence the assertion, so often made, that sugar is the only branch of industry in the South which can relieve cotton from the morbid influence of extra production.

The consumption of sugar in the United States is estimated at about 350,000,000 pounds, and must be continually increasing with the population: whilst Louisiana's largest crop has, as yet, only reached 204,000,000 pounds. And she has sugar lands not only to supply our home consumption, but also that of a large portion of Europe.

Question 5. What has been the profit of the capital so employed per annum, for the ten years preceding 1842, under the reduction of the duties by the act of 1832, and the Compromise act of the next year, estimated in the same way?

Answer. By far the largest portion of the capital invested in the sugar industry, during the ten years preceding 1842, not only gave no return, but worked as a sinking fund in an inverse ratio, and carried distress and expropriation to such of our planters who, shortly before that calamitous period, had borrowed money on their estates, for purposes of improvements and extension in their working power.

That the position of the sugar industry in 1832-33 may be well understood, it becomes necessary to take a cursory view of that eventful period, when so many of our oldest and most respectable families were gradually tortured into absolute poverty.

As stated in the answer to the 3d question, the number of sugar estates in 1827–28 numbered 308; manual power, 21,000 slaves; steam power, 82; horse power, 226; the capital thus invested was then estimated at $34,000,000.

Up to this period the sugar interest had sustained itself in the most flourishing condition. The large crop of 1827–28, say 87,965 hogsheads, had brought it to its climax. The cane then became the favourite culture, and sugar lands and negroes attained most exorbitant prices, ($1,000 for field hands.)

From 1827 to 1830, 383 new sugar estates were established; steam power replaced that of horse, on more than 200 estates, at a cost of, at least, $6,000 for each engine and mill; the number of labourers was increased about 15,000, all which required a further outlay of $16,000,000;

and to achieve all this, and in so short a time, capital had to be borrowed, and at that epoch it was easily done, for sugar planters were then enjoying the highest credit in the State.

As before said, to change the culture of cotton into that of sugar, is the work of at least three years; and at that epoch, when our planters were less skilful, it was only in the fifth year that good sugars could be obtained from new cleared lands.

With all this vast outlay of capital, the crop of 1828–29 did not exceed 48,238 hogsheads, and the average for the three succeeding years did not exceed 75,000 hogsheads.

This great deficit of the crop, compared to the yield of 1827–28, with the above additional outlay of $16,000,000, soon made it necessary to resort to foreign capital; and to this cause may be attributed the chartering of the Union Bank of Louisiana, which has been the means of saving many and many of our planters from expropriation.

It was at this critical period that the Compromise bill, with its biennial reductions, became a law, and that the duty on molasses, which, from five cents per gallon, had been advanced, in 1828, to ten cents, to check the fraudulent importation of sugars in disguise, (see documents annexed,) was again reduced to five cents.

The effect of such legislation on the sugar interest was fatal: it at once destroyed the credit of all those interested in it as effectually as if war and pestilence had been raging over the whole of the sugar parishes. Money-lenders then believed that great interest, involving a capital of $50,000,000, doomed to complete annihilation as effectually as if the horizontal plan, so much dreaded, had been put in operation on the very day the bill was passed; and it was thus that the sugar planters found themselves suddenly thrown upon their own resources, or at the mercy of their creditors.

A very large number of them were soon compelled to return to the culture of cotton, leaving their expensive sugar works a dead weight to them. More than one-half of the remaining estates were obliged to turn a portion of their cane fields into corn fields, in order to raise provisions they had no longer the means to buy. More than two-thirds of them were deficient in grinding power, or in hands to clear and drain their lands; and but for the charter of the Citizens' Bank, in 1836, a sweeping mutation would have taken place in the ownership of sugar estates. The sugar planters, in this last bank, represent 40,000 shares, which enabled them to obtain a loan, at fifty years, of $2,000,000, (on the reimbursement per annum of 2 per cent., and the payment of 6½ per cent. interest;) but for this aid few, if any of them, would have been able to withstand the revulsion of 1837, which only terminated in 1842, and then found them, from want of means or credit to work properly their estates, verging towards absolute ruin. The tariff of 1842 was their salvation; it at once restored confidence in that kind of property, enabled the planter to improve his sugar works, to clear and drain his lands, and to procure the necessary supplies for the working of his estate. Thousands of Irishmen were soon seen digging canals in all directions; engineers putting up new engines, or repairing old ones; masons setting sugar kettles on improved plans. All kinds of improvements are now going on to hasten the growth and to accelerate the maturity of the cane, and its boiling into sugar. Many estates, these last three years, have more than doubled their usual yield. It is now demonstrated that, with the late improvements in the cultivation of the cane and the mode of boiling it, sugars can be made to yield a fair return at four cents. Estates have advanced in value, this last year, 50 per cent. A steam apparatus, for the purpose of boiling in vacuo, and producing white sugar direct from the cane, was put up last year on one of the large estates below town; it was built in Philadelphia, and cost $20,000; its success was such as to induce another planter to order one from the same foundry, and it will be in operation in a few days. The senior partner of the Novelty Works, of New York, is now supervising the erection of Des Rones's celebrated boiling apparatus on one of the estates above town; it has been built at his foundry at the cost of about $25,000; it will be in operation in a few days. Not less than five large estates will be working, this year, on the white sugar system: and, as it has already been shown, our last year's crop has exceeded by 78,000 hogsheads the largest crop produced before 1842.

The cotton planter did not appear to fare much better than the sugar planter, during the operation of the Compromise act.

The answer of the 4th interrogatory meets the question propounded as to profit on capital employed.

Remarks.—The cotton crop of Louisiana, in 1832, was about 150 to 160,000 bales. On the passage of the Compromise bill, the sugar interest being considered as doomed to destruction, cotton became at once the great leading article for cultivation, and soon attained the enormous quantity of 350,000 bales, as proved by the census of the Federal Government; the sugar parishes alone producing upwards of 52,000 bales. It is easily believed that but for the effect of the Compromise act, this State would have never exceeded 250,000 bales, if so much. Who can say what would have been the effect on the price of cotton of a difference of 100,000 bales per annum, during the last ten years ? a difference which, supposing consumption to have been the same, would have left both hemispheres without a bale of cotton on hand, on the termination of this last commercial year.

Question 6. What has been the annual price of these agricultural products and staples during the same periods respectively? and what the annual average income per hand, or labourer, deducting all expenses, during the same periods respectively?

Answer. Prices of sugars on plantations, from 1832–33, to 1841–42, have been as follows, during the month of March of each year:

Years.	Sugars.	Molasses.	Crops.
1832–33, ...	5½ a 5¾ cents.	19 cents.	70,000
1833–34, ...	6 a 7 "	20 a 21 "	75,000
1834–35, ...	5¾ a 6 "	18 a 19 "	110,000
1835–36, ...	10 a 11 "	33 a 34 "	36,000
1836–37, ...	6 "	23 "	75,000
1837–38, ...	5¼ a 6 "	22 "	No return.
1838–39, ...	5 a 6 "	23 a 24 "	No return.
1839–40, ...	3¼ a 4 "	15 a 16 "	119,947
1840–41, ...	5¼ a 5¾ "	16 "	120,000
1841–42, ...	2½ a 4½ "	13 a 13½ "	125,000
And from 1842–45.			
1842–43, ...	3¾ a 4 cents.	11 a 11½ cents.	140,316
1843–44, ...	5½ a 6⅛ "	20 "	100,346
1844–45, ...	3⅝ a 4⅝ "	14 a 15½ "	204,913

The preceding comparative statement of crops and prices show the practical operation of supply and demand, and the influence of the one upon the other.

Remarks.—The above prices are taken from the New Orleans Prices Current. March is the month of the year when the bulk of the sugar crop is sold, it being then sufficiently drained for exportation.

The product per slave will be found in answer to questions 4 and 6.

Prices and Crops of Cotton from 1832–33 *to* 1841–42.

Months.	1832-33.	1833-34.	1834-35.	1835-36.	1836-37.	1837-38.	1838-39.
September,	..	..	11½ a 13½	..	..	8 a 11½	8 a 10
October,	17 a 18½	17 a 18	13 a 15	15 a 17¾	16½ a 19	9½ a 12	10 a 10¾
November,	13 a 14½	13½ a 16	13½ a 16	15 a 17	15½ a 19	8½ a 11	10½ a 13
December,	11 a 13	11½ a 14½	14½ a 16	14½ a 17	14½ a 17	8½ a 11	11 a 13¼
January,	9 a 11	10 a 12	14 a 17	14½ a 17	14 a 17½	9 a 11	11 a 13¼
February,	10 a 11	9½ a 11½	14 a 17½	14½ a 18	12½ a 15½	8 a 10¾	13 a 16
March,	9½ a 12½	9½ a 12½	15 a 17½	16 a 18½	12½ a 15½	8 a 10¾	13 a 15½
April,	10½ a 13	10½ a 13	16 a 19	15½ a 20	8½ a 12	8½ a 10¾	13½ a 16
May,	11 a 13½	11 a 13½	16 a 20	15 a 18½	8 a 12	8½ a 11	14 a 16
June,	11½ a 13½	11 a 13½	18 a 20	14½ a 18	8 a 10	8½ a 11	11½ a 14⅝
July,	11½ a 13½	11 a 13½	16 a 20	14½ a 18	7 a 10	8½ a 10¾	12 a 14½
August,	..	11½ a 13½	18 a 20	14½ a 18	7 a 11½	8½ a 11½	10 a 11½
Crops of the United States,	1,070,438	1,205,394	1,254,328	1,360,725	1,422,930	1,801,497	1,360,532

Months.	1839-40.	1840-41.	1841-42.	1842-43.	1943-44.	1844-45.
September,	8 a 10½	8 a 10	10½	6	5¾ a 8	6 a 7½
October,	10 a 12	9 a 10	8¼ a 9¾	6½ a 8	7 a 8¾	5¾ a 7½
November,	8 a 10	8 a 9½	8½ a 10¾	5½ a 7¾	6¾ a 8	5½ a 6⅞
December,	7½ a 9	8½ a 9½	8¼ a 10	5¼ a 7¾	7½ a 8¾	4¾ a 6½
January,	7¼ a 9	8¼ a 9¾	8 a 9¾	5¼ a 7¾	8¼ a 10¾	4⅝ a 6¼
February,	7 a 9	9¼ a 10¾	7½ a 10	5½ a 7½	8¾ a 10	4 a 6¼
March,	6 a 7⅞	9½ a 10¾	6¾ a 10	4½ a 7	8½ a 9¾	5 a 6⅝
April,	6¼ a 8½	9½ a 10¾	7¼ a 10	4⅞ a 7⅞	7½ a 9¾	5¾ a 7½
May,	6½ a 9	10½ a 11½	6¼ a 10	5½ a 7¾	6¾ a 8¾	5⅞ a 7½
June,	7¼ a 9¼	9½ a 10	6¼ a 10	5⅝ a 8	7 a 8¾	5⅞ a 7½
July,	7½ a 9¾	9 a 11½	6¾ a 10	5¾ a 8	6¼ a 8½	6½ a 7½
August,	7½ a 10	9 a 11½	6¼	5¾ a 8	6¼ a 8	6½ a 7¾
Crops of the United States,	2,177,835	1,634,945	1,683,574	2,378,875	2,030,409	2,394,500

Note.—The prices quoted are for middling to fair, leaving out extreme qualities, average qualities being from middling to fair.

Question 7. How far prices and profits during the periods referred to have been affected by the operation of the tariff laws, and how far by the state of the currency?

Answer. To that extent that the Federal Government itself was upon the verge of bankruptcy on the termination of the Compromise bill; that it sent a commissioner to Europe to negotiate a pitiful loan of four to five millions of dollars, who had to return without finding a single taker: that the derangement in our currency and the fiscal concerns of the Federal Government destroyed confidence between man and man; and, for the time being, carried perturbation and ruin to almost every branch of our industry throughout the land; but that such of our products as are chiefly sold for export, as cotton and tobacco, being always paid for in sterling, francs, or dollars, did not suffer any thing like the depreciation sustained by all interests strictly local.

Remarks. High prices are not the consequence of a tariff, when judiciously laid, but the reverse. In our revenue arrangements, the effect of taxing the foreign article competing with our home labour has been invariably to make prices considerably cheaper.

This proposition is fully proved by our commercial history.

Examples—Niles's Register, vol. 44:

1793,	iron,	duty	$15 per ton;	home current prices	$90 to $95 per ton.
1816,	"	"	9 "	"	110 to 120 "
1824,	"	"	18 "	"	90 "
1832,	"	"	22 40 "	"	80 "

New York Shipping List, chapter 4, p. 212 (Congress Library:)

1816,	sugar,	duty 3 cts.;	home current prices in May,	14½ to 16½	cents.
1817,	"	"	"	11½ to 14	"
1818,	"	"	"	10½ to 15½	"
1820,	"	"	"	8½ to 12½	"
1823,	"	"	"	6½ to 10	"
1825,	"	"	"	7½ to 10	"
1829,	"	"	"	6¾ to 8½	"
1831,	"	"	"	5 to 7	"

The doctrine of the disciples of free trade, as expressed by Mr. McDuffie, their great leader, in his late manifesto, "that a tax upon a foreign article produced or manufactured in this country advances the price of the home article the whole extent of the tax," is an absurdity, and its application to sugar and low cottons will show it at once.

The duty on foreign brown sugars is 2½ cents.

The crops of sugars of 1842–43 and 1844–45 averaged, as seen before, 3⅞ cents.

Let 2½ cents be deducted therefrom, and there will remain 1⅜ cent, which, but for the tariff, would have been, according to Mr. McDuffie's doctrine, the legitimate and current value of Louisiana sugars at those epochs.

Low plain cottons (foreign) pay a minimum duty of about 7½ cents per square yard; according to Mr. McDuffie's doctrine, the home article of the same kind is thereby enhanced 7½ cents. Such goods from our own manufacturers are selling throughout the Union at 6½ cents. Supposing the tariff removed, by what rule of political economy could 7½ cents be deducted from 6½ cents? Prices must ever be ruled by supply and demand, as exchanges by gold and silver.

The excess of production of any commodity whatever over the wants of consumption carries with it a depreciation far beyond that excess.

Whilst one per cent. less than the quantity of commodities required for the consumption of the world may produce an advance of 20, 30, and even 50 per cent. on the cost of production, 1 per cent. more than the quantity wanted may produce debasement in the same ratio.

Examples—Niles's Register, vol. 1, 544:

1811,	coffee,	duty 5 cts.;	current prices in the United States	16	cents.
1813,	"	"	"	22	"
1820–22,	coffee,	"	"	27	"
1829–30,	"	"	"	12½	"
1831,	"	2	"	12½	"
1832,	"	1	"	13	"
1833,	"	free.	"	13	"

Which shows that coffee, under a duty of 5 cents, declined gradually from 27 cents to 12½ cents; that the duty was reduced 3 cents and prices advanced to 13 cents: that it was reduced 4 cents, and still prices continued 13 cents; that it was made free, and that prices sustained themselves at 13 cents. A reference to the annexed paper, (No. 3,) page 761, will show that the crop of sugar in this State failed in 1835–36, and that, trifling as it is compared to the amount produced in the world, prices advanced in the United States to 11 cents, and in Cuba to 6⅛ a 7 cents; nearly 100 per cent. over their real value. Our imports from Cuba that year amounted to $12,514,718; or $5,708,093 more than any previous year. The following year our crop was an average one, and prices, both here and in Cuba, receded to former rates.

Last year our crop exceeded by 70,000 hhds. the largest crop ever produced in Louisiana; our market opened at three to four cents; yet, in April last, the extent of the injury done to the Cuba crop by a hurricane and drought having been ascertained, speculation seized upon the balance of our crop, and prices advanced to six and seven cents, or nearly 100 per cent., and sugars advanced considerably all over the world. A reference to a report to the House of Commons of 5th May, 1841, (Congress Library,) will show—

	STERLING.	
	s.	d.
That an over supply of sugars in 1834, compared to 1833, of 215,140 cwt., produced a decline of	3	4
That a short supply in 1835, compared to 1834, of 317,810 cwt., produced an advance of	7	11½
That an over supply in 1836, compared to 1835, of 167,864 cwt., produced a decline of	1	8¼
That a short supply in 1837, compared to 1836, of 100,171 cwt., produced an advance of	5	10¼
That an over supply in 1838, compared to 1837, of 415,081 cwt., produced a decline of	12	2½
That a short supply in 1839, compared to 1838, of 599,517 cwt., produced an advance of	11	¼
That a short supply in 1840, compared to 1839, of 72,476 cwt., produced an advance of	18 ! ! !	

or, of 100 per cent. on the average prices of 1838.

And during the whole of that period, the British tariff remained untouched for sugars, save the admission, in 1836, of Bengals, for home co[illegible]mption.

[illegible]833 the people of Great Britain received, for their own consumption, from their own possessions, 4,184,964 cwt. of sugars, for which they paid £6,850,566 sterling.

In 1840 the emancipation of the West India slaves reduced the annual supply 954,286 cwt., and the people had to pay, for 3,210,678 cwt., £9,385,115 sterling.

The history of our cotton industry, from 1814 to 1840, presents the same fluctuations. (See Document No. 3.)

There was a high tariff when, in 1817, two years after the peace, uplands were selling in Liverpool at 23½d.

No material change had taken place in our revenue laws in 1822, when cotton declined to 5¾ a 8¼d.; in 1824, when it advanced to 9 a 10½d.; in 1825, when it reached 16¾ a 10½d.: and when, in 1826, it receded to 6 a 8¾d.; and in 1827, to 4⅞ a 7¾d.

These are facts worthy the attention of our legislators, and in political economy facts are to theory what foundation is to its superstructure.

Table produced by Mr. Forstall, as arranged by Mr. Champomier of New Orleans, showing the Crop of Sugar made in Louisiana in 1844. *Mr. Champomier gives each estate, but we think it unnecessary to give more than the summary, which is as follows:*

NAMES OF PARISHES.	No. sugar estates in each parish.	No. by steam power.	No. by horse power.	No. of actual hhds. by each one.	No. of 1000 lbs. by each one.
Pointe Coupée,	5	5	..	886	883
West Baton Rouge,	19	14	5	4,247	4,811
East Baton Rouge,	18	14	4	4,474	5,026
Iberville,	69	47	22	16,463	17,979
Ascension,	48	31	17	19,223	20,296
St. James,	67	44	23	21,519	22,699
St. John the Baptist,	55	26	29	13,575	13,820
St. Charles,	37	32	5	12,532	12,878
Jefferson,	24	23	1	11,218	11,757
St. Bernard,	23	18	5	6,941	7,149
Plaquemines,	36	32	4	14,761	16,123
Assumption, Bayou Lafourche,	62	24	38	11,990	12,878
Lafourche Interiour, do.	49	23	26	14,205	14,678
Terrebonne, do.	42	32	10	12,661	13,801
St. Mary, Attakapas,	147	31	116	18,795	21,261
St. Martin, do.	36	9	27	4,419	5,031
Lafayette, do.	4	..	4	372	408
Vermillion, do.	13	..	13	862	934
St. Landry, Opelousas,	8	3	5	1,179	1,301
Divers small parcels made in different sugar houses,	..	..	..	1,000	1,000
Total,	762	408	354	191,324	204,913

REPORT OF THE

NEW ORLEANS CHAMBER OF COMMERCE.

It is just at this moment one of the greatest difficulties attending the editorial duties of a work upon the plan of the National Magazine, to make the proper selections of the vast many documents with which we are publicly and privately favoured, setting forth, in the most clear and convincing manner, the benefits to the whole country of the protective system; it being next to impossible, from the very nature of the subject, to avoid a repetition of the same facts and arguments.

We make this remark, that our readers may appreciate this difficulty generally; but it more particularly applies to the present number, and to the following extracts from the very important report of the New Orleans Chamber of Commerce, when compared with the very convincing facts elicited in the testimony given by Mr. Edmund J. Forstall, of the same city, in answer to Mr. Walker's circular, also published in this number.

The truth is as forcible now as it was in the olden time, that "out of the mouths of many witnesses the truth is established;" and although the valuable report, to the extracts from which we now ask public attention, touches many of the points, and gives many of the facts so clearly stated by Mr. Forstall, what is this but additional evidence of their truth? But the report of the Chamber of Commerce of New Orleans goes even further than Mr. F., and derives additional force from its being the testimony of many, and not merely of one person. Moreover, that Chamber is doubtless composed of many persons who are neither growers of cotton, nor planters of the sugar cane, but merchants, interested deeply in the export trade of that important port.

It would give us the greatest satisfaction to publish the whole of this report, but we perceive it is stated to be taken from Mr. Forstall's facts, and therefore, so far as sugar and molasses are concerned, we need only say that the report, in the following sentence, endorses the testimony of Mr. Forstall, which will doubtless give it, in the estimation of our readers, all the force it would have if emanating from the New Orleans Chamber of Commerce, while this endorsement will show why we have contented ourselves with the extract, instead of publishing the report entire.

The subject has been fully and ably treated in a recent publication from the pen of E. J. Forstall, Esq., from which most of the above facts have been taken.

Our readers will perceive that this report was submitted to the Chamber of Commerce of New Orleans, on the 1st of December last, and that it was in answer to the circulars of the Secretary of the Treasury; but we do not find it among the testimony attached to the 957 pages of Mr. Walker's document, as presented to Congress. We think it, however, quite fair to consider it as part of his testimony, since it was elicited by him, and ought, undoubte[illegible]y, to have been annexed with the rest. Why it was not, the Secretary can best tell.

It is proper we should state, that it passed the Chamber with only one dissenting voice, and bears the signatures of Wm. L. Hodge, Alexander Go[illegible]on, and J. W. Zacharie, with the following confirmation by the Chamber:

> "On motion, it was *Resolved*, (with one dissenting voice,) that the above report be ad[illegible]d, and that a copy of it be transmitted to the Honourable the Secretary of the T[illegible]y, as the answer of this Chamber. SAML. J. PETERS, *President.*
>
> [illegible]ARLES BRIGGS, *Secretary.*"

AGRICULTURAL AND COMMERCIAL INTERESTS OF LOUISIANA.

NEW ORLEANS CHAMBER OF COMMERCE.

At a meeting of the Chamber, on 1st December, 1845, Mr. HODGE, Chairman of the Committee appointed at the last meeting, submitted the following report, viz:

The committee to whom was referred the questions propounded by the Honourable Secretary of the Treasury, which had been officially submitted to the Chamber, beg leave to offer the following

REPORT.

Many of these questions do not in any way apply to the state of things as they at present exist in Louisiana, and others cannot be answered fully and correctly without much time to procure the needful and detailed information. Under these circumstances, the committee, without attempting to reply in detail and in regular order to each question separately, will endeavour to give a general answer, embracing the principal points which are more particularly applicable to this State.

The agricultural productions of Louisiana may be considered as confined to cotton, sugar, molasses, and rice; the latter, however, only to a limited extent, and far short of what is required for consumption. Corn and hay are raised on the plantations for their own consumption, and some of the former even for sale, but to so small an extent as not to be worthy of notice. The quantity of both grown in the State is far from being a full supply for local consumption, and large quantities of both from other States are annually sold and consumed here. The same in regard to potatoes, peas, beans, onions, &c. Other grain than corn is not cultivated in the State.

The cotton crop of Louisiana may be estimated at 330,000 bales of 400 pounds each, varying as the season may be more or less favourable.

The sugar crop of the last five years has been:

1840-41.	1841-42.	1842-43.	1843-44.	1844-45.
120,000 hhds.	125,000 hhds.	140,000 hhds.	100,000 hhds.	200,000 hhds.

Of an average nett weight of 1,000 pounds each.

The molasses is estimated at 45 to 50 gallons per hogshead.

The State does not raise horses, mules, sheep, hogs, or provisions, sufficient for her consumption. Some horses, though comparatively few, and some horned cattle, are furnished from the western districts of the State. Hogs, to a limited extent, are raised on some of the plantations; but on most of them none at all. Sheep are also raised, but in very small numbers; and the State is dependant on the Western States for nearly all her bacon, pork, and butchers' meat; for all her bread-stuffs and grain, and horse and cattle feed, except hay and corn, of which, as already stated, a partial supply is grown in the State.

Sixty thousand bales of pressed hay are annually imported from the Atlantic ports and Western States.

All the mules, nearly all the horses, oxen, pork, bacon, salted beef, bread-stuffs, and provisions, are procured from the Western States.

Out of the city of New Orleans, there are no manufactories, de[illegible]ing of the name, unless it may be the State Penitentiary at Baton Roug[illegible]n the city, they are few, and on a limited scale. There is a small cotton mill, and one or two on a large scale are in contemplation, but depending on the coming action of Congress respecting the tariff. There are several iron foundries, and engine makers, and some copper and tin manufactures; five or six sugar refiners; one paper mill, three steam grist mills, and, in the immediate vicinity, extensive brick yards and steam saw mills. It is believed these embrace nearly or quite all the establishments of any note, and of course do not include those of minor importance, that are dispersed in private buildings throughout the city, such as lock and gun smiths, blacksmiths, shoemakers, &c.; but even these are in comparatively very limited numbers, and furnishing but a small portion of the necessary supply, required by the community, of their respective articles.

The great staples of the State are, of course, sugar and cotton, and her resources and prosperity at present depend on the culture of these two articles.

Until within a few years, the culture of cotton gave very large profits, greatly exceeding that, perhaps, of any other industrial pursuit, either agricultural or mechanical—the natural and inevitable consequence of which was, particularly in such an enterprising country as the United States, that capital was attracted to, and accumulated so rapidly in, that particular culture, that, notwithstanding the rapid increase of consumption, the production has overtaken, if it even has not exceeded it, and a consequent reaction has taken place, and that interest is now comparatively depressed, particularly in the older planting States on the Atlantic, where the production per acre is so much less than in the new and rich soil of the southwestern section of our country. Excessive production is the great evil under which the culture of cotton is now labouring; and any thing which will permanently divert a portion of the force now engaged in raising it, to some other object, will, as a matter of course, greatly benefit the cotton planter; but, unfortunately, these latter are constantly striving, by increasing cultivation, to compensate themselves for low prices, though even, at present rates, it yields an annual return equal to any of the great agricultural staples of the North or West.

In answer, more particularly, to the twenty-sixth question of the Honourable Secretary, whether the present duties benefit the agricultural productions of the State, the committee would reply affirmatively, both as regards cotton and sugar. The present duties the committee consider as the principal cause of the prosperity and increase of the cotton manufactures of the United States, which benefit the cotton planter.

1st. Because the domestic manufacturer is another and an important competitor with other purchasers of the raw material. He is early and constantly in the market, and always with a favourable effect for the planters as to price, and their heavy and constant purchases, it is universally admitted, keep the market above the rates that would otherwise prevail.

2dly. The domestic manufacturer consumes exclusively American cotton, whereas the British manufacturer uses only about three-fourths of American, and the balance India, Egyptian, and Brazil; and if the cotton goods now manufactured in the United States, and requiring probably 500,000 bales annually of our own cotton, were manufactured in, and imported from, England, only 375,000 bales of American cotton could be consumed, and the remaining 125,000 bales would be foreign cotton.

3dly. The domestic manufacture has entirely driven from the markets the immense quantity of coarse Bengal cotton goods, which were previously imported from Calcutta and Madras, to an extent that required 40 to 50,000 bales of cotton to manufacture, and would, if we continued to import in the same ratio for our present population, require more than double that quantity. The first protective tariff of 1816, advocated and urged by Southern statesmen, killed off that entire trade at a single blow, and now a much better and more serviceable fabric is furnished at less than one-third the price, and manufactured *exclusively* from our own cotton, instead of being *exclusively* of foreign cotton, with the additional fact, that large quantities of American cotton are now consumed in manufactured goods sent by us into those very ports in India, from whence we formerly drew such heavy supplies.

4thly. A large quantity of American cotton is consumed for manufactured goods for the Chinese market, with the prospect of an enormous increase. The cheapness of India cotton, and the vicinity of it, prevent us from competing with the raw material in the markets of China, which we can only enter with the manufactured article—for the great perfection and superiority of our machinery, our greater skill, and the vast advantages of our motive power, enable us to overcome their cheap labour, employed upon rude and unscientific hand looms, and their inveterate prejudices against all innovations or changes, will effectually prevent them from adopting our spindles, power looms, and steam engines, to say nothing of the time and difficulty of introducing such radical changes in so remote a country, even if they were more willing to adopt them; and we are probably destined, in a very few years, to see the cotton goods now annually manufactured in that empire from hundreds of thousands of bales of India cotton, superseded by goods made in the United States, from our own raw material. This effect has already been produced to a considerable extent in British India, where their hand looms are rapidly giving way before British and American manufactured cotton, though an import duty has been imposed upon them, which the British government has recently doubled on those imported in American vessels.

The domestic manufacture of cotton has, therefore, advanced the interest of the cotton grower, by increasing the consumption of American cotton, not only at home, but by opening new markets abroad, and substituting goods made entirely from our cotton, for those which previously were wholly or partially made from foreign cotton. These results are constantly extending and increasing, and can only be maintained by the continued success and prosperity of the domestic manufacture.

THE CONDITION OF ENGLISH LABOURERS

IN THE AGRICULTURAL AND MANUFACTURING DISTRICTS.

On the examination of Secretary Walker's Report in our last number, we stated our opinion that the question of protection or no protection to the industry of the United States, was a "question of the profits of labour"—and we took occasion then, as we have repeatedly done, to speak of the depression of labour in England and on the continent of Europe, and the consequent degradation of man in the scale of creation. As some of our readers may not have had, as we have had, an opportunity of a personal inspection into that matter—we propose now to give them some account of it, from very recent British authority—assuring them at the same time, that it is to us a very painful duty—for we cannot if we would, and we would not if we could, avoid having our sympathies deeply excited, in the recollection, that we are about to speak of our fellow men, their wives, and their children, who, though they reside in other climes, and under other skies, still are they sons and daughters of Adam, the workmanship in common with ourselves of the same Almighty hand; and were it within our power so to order it, gladly would we that they should have extended to them the many blessings enjoyed under our own benign institutions; and our earnest desire is, that the late alterations proposed by Sir Robert Peel, should they be adopted, may produce even a greater melioration to the condition of the English labourer, than the premier's most sanguine hopes, and we doubt not his ardent wishes have anticipated.

We cannot, however, see that it can by any possibility benefit them, to reduce us to nearly, if not quite, their abject state; and believing, as we do, that the adoption of Mr. Secretary Walker's proposed change in our Revenue System would inevitably result in this, we proceed to show it forth in all its horrours, as a timely and solemn warning.

We have before us a work on over-population, being, an inquiry into the extent and causes of the distress prevailing among the labouring classes of the British Islands, and into the means of remedying it, by William Thomas Thornton, published in London, by Longman, Brown, Green, and Longmans, Paternoster Row, in 1846.

The first extract from this work, relates to the agricultural labourer; it then goes on and shows the condition of the labourer dependent upon manufactures.

DEPRESSED AND DEGRADED LABOUR OF ENGLAND, ACCORDING TO MR. THORNTON.

Agricultural labourers claim the first notice, as well on account of the importance of their occupation, as of their forming, with the single exception of domestic servants, the most numerous class in the country. According to the census of 1841, their whole number, including women and children, in England and Wales, was 966,271; of whom 772,072 were male adults. The nature of field labour being much the same in every part of the country, it might have been expected that the earnings of agricultural labourers would likewise be everywhere pretty nearly equal; but although subject to less striking variations than wages in other departments of industry, they do really vary very materially, not only in different counties, but in different parts of the same county. It may seem strange, that where wages are unusually high, they should not be immediately reduced to the common level by the migration of labourers from other quarters; but, besides that there is some foundation for Adam Smith's assertion, that "man is the least transportable species of luggage," the comparative isolation and the illiterateness of agricultural labourers prevent their knowing much of the state of affairs beyond their own neighbourhood. Moreover, until the late change in the poor law, the laws affecting the settlement of paupers virtually almost confined the English field labourer to his native parish; and would often have restrained him, even if so disposed, from going elsewhere in quest of better remuneration. It is unnecessary for the purposes of this inquiry to examine the condition of the labourer in every part of the country. We may confine our attention to those districts which present the most striking contrasts, and having ascertained both the highest and the lowest degrees on the social scale occupied by labourers, we shall be able to judge of their general condition, and to determine in what districts their numbers are excessive.

No other part of England seems to have a better right than Lincolnshire to be entitled the labourer's paradise. His wages in this county, according to one account,* range from 11s.† to 13s. a week, but according to a statement made by Lord Worsley in the House of Commons,‡ they are never less than 9s. even in winter, nor less than 12s. at other seasons; while, if task-work be taken into the account, a man's average earnings throughout the year are from 13s. to 16. 6d. a week, to which his wife may, at certain seasons, add 10d. or 1s. a day by field work. The money wages of labourers in husbandry, however, sometimes form only part of their income. In Lincolnshire, the practice of allotting to them small portions of land of half an acre in extent, at the rent customary in the neighbourhood, to be cultivated in their spare hours, has now become pretty general, and adds greatly to their resources. Half an acre, under spade tillage, may produce on an average ten pounds worth* of potatoes and other vegetables, and will allow of a pig being kept besides, so that the average annual profit of a cultivator may be fairly estimated as high as £11. Eleven pounds sterling a year are a fraction less than 4s. 3d. a week, which, added to 14s. of wages, will make a weekly income of 18s. 3d. altogether. In some parts of Lincolnshire, labourers are sometimes hired by the year, and at Kilstern, where this seems to be a common custom, they are said to have besides about £28 a year in money, a cottage and garden rent free, "the keep of a pig in the crews in the winter, and run upon the farm in the summer," and the right to four quarters of barley and two quarters of wheat at a low price. The total income of a single man, so situated, may be thus estimated.

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* Reports on Employment of Women and Children in Agriculture, 1843.

† At $4 80 the pound sterling, a shilling is 24 cents.—EDITOR.

‡ Hansard's Parl. Deb., 12th March, 1844.

	£	s.	d.
Yearly wages,	28	0	0
Annual value of cottage and of garden produce,	6	0	0
Profit by sale of pig,	1	0	0
Gain by low price of corn supplied by the farmer,	2	10	0
	37	10	0
To which may be added, for nett produce of allotment,	10	0	0
Making altogether the sum of,	47	10	0

Or about 18s. 3d. a week.

About Kilstern agricultural labourers can afford to eat fresh meat almost every day; and throughout Lincolnshire they seem to be able to do so pretty frequently. At other times they have bacon (for they almost always eat their pig themselves;) but their principal diet is wheaten, and sometimes barley bread, dumplings, and potatoes; with cheese, butter, onions, and other vegetables, and tea.

This notice of Lincolnshire requires little alteration to adapt it to the adjoining county of Rutland, where farm servants are similarly well paid, and are likewise in general allotment holders. It may be mentioned that, both in Lincolnshire and Rutland, the cottager frequently keeps a cow upon his land, and gets a daily supply of milk instead of vegetables.

Next in order, according to the social position of the peasantry, comes the three northern counties of Northumberland, Cumberland, and Westmoreland. In the first of these, the mode of hiring farm servants is peculiar. Some are engaged merely by the day, in which case the wages of men are 2s. or 2s. 3d.; but this custom is not the most common. There being but few villages from which occasional assistance can be obtained, farmers endeavour to maintain upon their own lands as many persons as they are likely to require at the busiest season. Upon every farm there are a number of cottages, with gardens attached, and “every man who is engaged by the year has one of these cottages. His family commonly find employment, more or less; but one female he is bound to have always in readiness to answer the master’s call, and to work at stipulated wages, which are universally 10d. a day, except at harvest, when they are 1s. To this engagement the name of bondage is given; and such females are called bondagers, or women who work the bondage.”[*]

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* Minutes of Evidence before Committee on Cottage Allotments.

The advantage of this system to the labouring class is unquestionable. The hind, as the yearly labourer is called, has a cottage and garden for himself and his family, several of whom are, in many cases, engaged by the year, as well as himself. His own wages are paid chiefly in kind; those of his sons, &c., either in money, or partly in money and partly in kind. Their average amount may be ascertained from the subjoined detailed examples, taken from Sir F. H. Doyle’s Report, of the conditions entered into with their labourers by three large occupiers of land:

Mr. Grey.	*Mr. Fenwick.*	*Mr. Hindmarsh.*
36 bush. oats,	10 bush. wheat,	36 bush. oats,
24 “ barley,	30 “ oats,	24 “ barley,
12 “ peas,	10 “ barley,	12 “ peas,
3 “ wheat,	10 “ rye,	6 “ wheat,
3 “ rye,	10 “ peas,	1000 yards of potatoes,
36 to 40 bush. of potatoes,	A cow’s keep for the year,	A cow’s keep,.
24 lbs. of wool,	800 yards of potatoes,	House and garden,
A cow’s keep for the year,	Cottage and garden,	Coals led,
Cottage and garden,	Coals led,	£5 in cash.
Coal carrying from the pit,	£3 10s. in cash,	
£4 in cash.	2 bushels of barley, in lieu of hens.	

A still better idea of the condition of the Northumbrian peasantry may be obtained from the annexed specimen of the half-yearly accounts between Mr. Hindmarsh and one of his hinds, and from the succeeding table, showing the sums due at the end of the half year to several hinds on a farm in another part of Northumberland, being the surplus earnings of all the members of each family, which they had not found it necessary to call for in the course of the half year, and had left in their master’s hands till Martinmas.

William Hindmarsh, Esq., Dr. to John Thompson.

	£	s.	d.
Jane Thompson, the bondager, 121½ days at 10d.,	5	1	3
Kate Thompson, (a child,) 24 harvest days at 1s.,	1	4	0
— — — 73½ days at 5d.,	1	10	7½
Eliza Thompson, (a younger child,) 7½ days,	0	1	9½
Isabella Thompson, (a dress maker at other times,) 35¾ days at 1s.,	1	15	9
— — 20 harvest days at 2s. 3d.,	2	5	0
Wife, 9 harvest days,	1	0	3
His old father, 52 days,	3	18	0
John Thompson’s half-year’s cash,	2	10	0
	£19	6	8

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[*] Sir F. H. Doyle, in Reports on Emp. of Women and Children in Agric., 1843. It may be worth while to mention, that there is nothing slavish but the sound in these terms “bondage” and “bondager.” They only mark the Danish descent of the modern Northumbrians. Like the Norwegian *bonde*, and the English *husbandman* and *husband*, they are not “derived from the word *band*, or *bond*, or *bind*, synonymous with *vinculum* and its derivatives, but from the Scandinavian words, *bond*, *brend*, *bor*, synonymous with inhabiting, dwelling in, dwell. *Bonder* and *husbandman* are the in-dwellers and householders. *Bonde* is the inhabitant, not the bondsman.”—*Laing’s Norway*, p. 369.

Half-yearly Accounts of Hinds.

	£	s.	d.		£	s.	d.
G. Cranston,	8	3	6½	T. Robson,	4	3	11
A. Tunnat,	15	0	4¼	J. Cranston,	6	12	4½
J. Redpath,	9	7	11½	A. Young,	7	2	5¾
S. Ewart,	5	5	9½	E. Davison,	5	15	1
A. Gray,	7	14	4½	G. Chernside,	5	16	7
A. Elliott,	23	2	2	T. Middlemas,	4	9	10½

T. Fullerton, in debt to his master £7 9s. 8½d. He had lost a valuable cow, and his master had lent him £10 to replace it.

The food of these people is, as might be presumed, composed chiefly of the article they receive in lieu of wages, and consists of oatmeal porridge, bread made of barley and peameal mixed, potatoes, milk, and occasionally bacon. They cannot complain of deficiency in the quantity of their food. "It often happens, indeed, that a hind, with but few in family, has, at the end of the year, a good deal of corn to dispose of, for which his master is always willing to give him the market price." The Northumbrian peasantry are, however, much better fed than housed. Sir F. H. Doyle shrewdly remarks, that if throughout a large district cottages were held rent free, many of them would probably be unfit to live in, and Northumberland, he says, justifies the assertion. The cottages there generally contain only one room, about 17 feet long by 15 broad. The walls are of rubble, or stones imbedded in mud; the floor is also mud; and the thatch, old, patched, and rotten, looks more like the top of a dunghill than of a house. There is a sketch of a group of these hovels in a little tract* by the Rev. Dr. Gilly, which shows that they are such as no kind-hearted master would keep a cow in. It must be owned, however, that something has been done of late to wipe away this disgrace. Sir Walter Riddell, and other benevolent landlords, have built ranges of comfortable cottages on their estates, and it is to be hoped that so excellent an example will soon be generally imitated.

The peasantry of Cumberland and Westmoreland ought perhaps to have been placed before those of Northumberland, for a smaller proportion of them belong to the class of mere labourers. Heads of families are very commonly proprietors of a few acres of land, which they cultivate with their own hands, procuring from their little freeholds not only every necessary article of food, but also the raw materials of clothing, which they partly manufacture themselves. These "statesmen," or "lairds," as they are called, do not aspire to luxury; but all their wishes are amply satisfied, and few people enjoy more of humble happiness. Their sons, if not required at home, enter the service of the neighbouring farmers. They are commonly hired by the half year, for which period they are paid from £6 10s. to £9 10s., and are lodged and boarded in their masters' houses, which they seldom leave until, through the death of some relation or neighbour, they succeed to the ownership or lease of a cottage farm. "What is called surplus labour does not here exist. Intersected in every direction by ranges of almost inaccessible and barren mountains, the population is thinly dotted over the intervening valleys," in due proportion to the facilities for cultivation and the opportunities for employment.†

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* Appeal on behalf of the Border Peasantry.

† Mr. Voules' Report on Westmoreland and Cumberland, in Appendix to Second Annual Report of Poor Law Commissioners. Messrs. Bailey and Culley's Report on Northumberland, Cumberland, &c.

These particulars may enable the reader to judge of the condition of the happiest portion of the English peasantry. Truly it presents no very captivating picture. The allotment holders of Lincolnshire and Rutland, and the yeomen of Cumberland and Westmoreland, indeed, are in a position which leaves little to be wished for, but such labourers as are entirely dependant on wages, although they may be secure from want, can scarcely be said to know any thing of comfort. Still it is something to obtain, by incessant toil, a sufficiency of the necessaries of life, and it would be well if even this modicum of good fortune were everywhere the husbandman's lot. How far otherwise is the fact we shall perceive, when, having observed him in his palmiest state, we now descend to the other extremity of the scale, and see what sort of a life he leads in the counties of Wilts and Somerset.

Dorsetshire affords an instance of the way in which the rate of wages sometimes varies at places within the same neighbourhood. If any dependence can be placed upon statements made by witnesses of the highest respectability,* which, while attracting a great deal of public attention, still remain unrefuted, it is certain that in most parts of the county the total receipts of a labouring man do not exceed 8s. a week, yet in others, in the neighbourhood of Blandford, for example, the average is represented, on equally good authority,† as not less than 11s., exclusive of other advantages, such as the possession of a cottage, either rent free, or at a reduced rent, a potato ground rent free, and the occasional use of his master's horses in his allotment. It is certain, however, that this is an exception to the rule, and that in general a field labourer cannot, one week with another, earn more than 8 shillings. A woman may earn six pence, eight pence, or a shilling a day, according to the season, but the employment of women in agriculture is not continuous, and it is supposed that the earnings of a cottager's wife throughout the year do not much exceed 50 shillings.‡ A man and his wife may, therefore, have 9s. a week, or £23 8s. a year, to provide for three and a quarter persons on an average. Fifty shillings go for rent, thirty for fuel, thirty more for soap and candles, and five pounds for clothes, leaving twelve pounds eighteen shillings a year, or about eight pence half-penny a day, to buy food for the family, that is to say, a fraction more than two pence half-penny a head daily. Taking the average price of such bread as is used by the peasantry in the West of England to be one shilling the gallon loaf of 8 lbs. 11 oz., and that of potatoes to be fourteen pence per bushel of 55 lbs., two pence half-penny will purchase about 29 oz. of bread or 10 lbs. of potatoes. In Ireland, where the character of the potato may be presumed to be best understood, five pounds are considered no more than a sufficient meal for a labouring man, but it appears that two of such meals a day are as much as the Dorsetshire labourer can venture to indulge in.

It must be borne in mind, that these calculations are not intended to represent the actual condition of the Dorsetshire labourer, but rather to show what if would be if every able-bodied man had to maintain an equal proportion of the helpless members of the community. Most of the aged and orphan poor are maintained by the parish, but it must not on that account be supposed that the average number of persons for whom an agricultural labourer has to provide is less than one and a quarter, or that each person's share of the daily eightpenny-worth of food is proportionably greater. Marriages take place both much more frequently and much earlier among labourers than among people of higher rank, and their families are consequently larger than the average. Certainly the real condition of the Dorsetshire peasantry is very little, if at all, superiour to the description given above. Bread and potatoes do really form the staple of their food. As for meat, most of them would not know its taste, if once or twice in the course of their lives—on the 'Squire's having a son and heir born to him, or on the young gentleman's coming of age—they were not regaled with a dinner of what the newspapers call "old English fare." Some of them contrive to have a little bacon, in the proportion, it seems, of half a pound a week to a dozen persons; but they more commonly use fat to give the potatoes a relish, and as one of them told Mr. Austin, "they don't *always* go without cheese."

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* See letters to Editor of "Times" newspaper, from the Hon. and Rev. Godolphin Osborne, Mr. Sheridan, and others.

† Mr. Austin's Rep on Emp. of Women and Children in Agriculture.

‡ Dr. Kay, an Assistant Poor Law Commissioner, made an inquiry, in the year 1838, into the incomes of 539 families in Norfolk and Suffolk, and found the average annual earnings of an agricultural labourer's wife to be £2 12s. 7d.

Particular stress has been laid upon the quantity and quality of food, because these are the most unerring tests of poverty. Few will stint themselves when they have the means of buying provisions, but many wear dirty ragged clothes merely because they are slovens, and every one must dwell in a hovel where no other dwellings than hovels exist. Otherwise the habitations, not less than the diet, of the Dorsetshire labourers, might be cited in proof of their extreme indigence. The cottages are generally old and decayed, and rarely contain more than three, and often only two rooms, so that grown-up persons of different sexes, fathers and daughters, brothers and sisters, are obliged to sleep in the same chamber. The walls are of mud, the floors generally of stone, but sometimes of earth, which in wet weather becomes mud, as the floors are often below the level of the ground outside. Drainage, and similar accommodations, are universally neglected, and the air is poisoned by the heaps of filth that accumulate beside the doors and windows. But though these wretched dens are doubtless as good as the Dorsetshire labourer can afford to rent, he could not choose but live in them, even if his means were greater, for the cottages in his neighbourhood are mostly of this description. As he must live near the farm on which he works, he must content himself with such lodgings as the owners of the land think proper to provide; and the condition of his dwelling, therefore, indicates chiefly the degree of the landholders' regard for their dependants, and is less certainly a proof of the inhabitant's poverty than an aggravation of his wretchedness.

Dorsetshire has lately become a by-word among the advocates of the agricultural poor, as if it exhibited the darkest picture of rural distress to be discovered in England; but in the lowest deep there is still a lower deep, as the traveller finds on passing out of this county, and entering either Wilts or Somersetshire. It has been stated, that in Dorsetshire the average rate of wages is about 8s. a week, and there are numbers of men who have nothing besides this money payment; but still there are numerous instances of persons obtaining other advantages, which make a sensible, and sometimes important, addition to their income. In Wiltshire wages are quite as low, and indeed rather lower, and the labourer seldom receives any thing additional from his master, or has any means of increasing his income, unless he has an allotment or keeps a pig. The farmers wonder how their men can live upon their earnings, and it would be wonderful indeed if the effects of insufficient food did not show themselves in the rapid detioration of the race. Recruiting officers find a material difference in the appearance and strength of candidates from the south-western and from the north and north-midland counties, and farmers observe an equal variation in the amount of exertion which they can obtain from their men. In Wiltshire the labourer's diet consists, as in Dorsetshire, chiefly of potatoes and bread, but the propotion of the latter article is smaller, and potatoes with salt are sometimes the only food. In Somersetshire matters are still worse. Wages are there 8s., 7s., and in some places as low as 6s. a week, without any addition, except an allowance of cider, worth about 15d., which the labourer, perhaps, would be quite as well without. Allotments, also, are less general than in the adjoining counties. Nevertheless, as the quality of the food used in those counties cannot easily be much reduced, potatoes and bread form the chief sustenance of the cottager in Somersetshire also, though the quantity of those articles consumed by him corresponds, of course, with his inferiour earnings.

From this view of the agricultural labourer's condition in the several counties in which it wears its brightest and its gloomiest aspect, a pretty correct idea may be formed regarding it throughout the rest of England. It ranges, of course, between the two extremes, being nowhere so tolerable as in Lincolnshire, and nowhere so melancholy as in Somersetshire, but nevertheless approaching, in different districts, to the comfort of the one or the wretchedness of the other. Thus in most parts of Yorkshire and others of the northern counties, the peasantry are little, if at all, worse off than their brethren of Northumberland. They are nearly as well fed, and they cannot be worse housed. In Kent, also, the rate of agricultural wages is rather above the average. Ten or twelve years ago the Kentish peasantry were among the most degraded in England, and their nearly universal dependance on the poor's rates, for part of their subsistence, seemed to be an unequivocal sign of over-population. The New Poor Law, however, while it threw them more upon their own resources, showed, at the same time, that those resources were much greater than had been supposed. Since the passing of this law the rate has not fallen, but remains at the old amount of 10s. or 12s. a week, thus showing that previously, when so many of the poor were maintained in idleness, the funds for profitably employing them were not really wanting, but were merely misdirected.

If official reports could be implicitly trusted, the condition of the peasantry in Norfolk and Suffolk would likewise be above the average. It may really have been so until lately, at least in Norfolk, where farms are generally very large, and farmers men of considerable capital, and little disposed to drive a hard bargain with their labourers. During the last two or three years, however, the fall in the price of produce has made them anxious to diminish the expenses of cultivation, and in many instances they have tried to save by employing fewer labourers and lowering wages. Even when employment was abundant, and while wages remained at the old rate of 10s. a week, the peasantry of these two counties seldom tasted any thing better than dry bread; so that, when employment was only to be had every other day, and the rate of wages fell to seven or eight shillings a week, their situation became truly deplorable.*

The peasantry of Bedfordshire and Buckinghamshire, also, are not much more to be envied than those of the West of England. These two counties are the principal seats of two manufactories—those of pillow lace and straw plat, which, twenty or thirty years ago, enabled the wives and daughters of cottagers to earn as much as their husbands and brothers. These manufactures have since fallen into decay, and are now brought so low that persons engaged in them cannot obtain a fifth part of their former earnings. The farm labourer's seven, eight, or nine shillings a week, have now become the mainstay of his family, and the smallness of their amount is only too perceptible. A recent, though somewhat too highly-coloured, account, speaks of the cottages as being little better than pig-sties: and says, that the raggedness and filth of the inmates are surpassed nowhere but in Ireland, while their wasted forms and pale faces give them almost the appearance of people recovering from severe illness.

The Rebecca riots that took place in South Wales, in the summer of 1843, drew a large share of public attention to the state of the inhabitants of that quarter, where the peasantry seem to be worse off than in the worst parts of England. Seven shillings a week—the minimum of English agricultural wages—are there the maximum, and are obtained only by labourers in the employment of landowners and gentlemen farmers. Such labourers commonly have their cottages rent free. Most of the farms, however, are small, not extending beyond 100 acres; and the poorer farmers pay their men only eight pence, nine pence, or, at most, a shilling a day, or six pence or eight pence a day with food, if, as is often the case, the men board with their masters. Coarse barley bread, flummery, and patatoes, are almost their sole food, and many of the small farmers themselves have little else except milk, cheese, and bacon. They seldom taste any other animal food.†

The general application of machinery and steam power to manufactures, has caused the latter to be removed almost entirely from the country to towns, where the number of work-people required in a large establishment is most easily procurable. One or two decaying manufactures still linger in the cottages of the poor, such as those of pillow lace and straw plat, already mentioned, in Buckinghamshire and Bedfordshire, and some others, both of the midland and western counties; and that of shirt-button making, in Dorsetshire. A good many hand loom weavers and stocking makers also reside in the villages of the manufacturing districts; and isolated factories, on a large scale, are to be found here and there in country places; but the number of persons employed in them bears too small a proportion to the mass of the rural population, and the condition of rural operatives, as far as wages are concerned, differs too slightly from that of their brethren in towns, to require more than a passing allusion to them. It may be laid down as a general rule, that, wherever agriculture is carried on in the neighbourhood of other occupations, its wages will be found nearly, if not quite, at the bottom of the scale. Almost every other business, with the solitary exception of hand loom weaving, seems to be more disagreeable than husbandry, or to be less easily learned, or to demand greater exertion, and is consequently better paid, except when its remuneration is temporarily depressed by peculiar circumstances.

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* See the Reports written from Norfolk and Suffolk, by the correspondent of the "Times" newspaper, in June and July, 1844. Next to personal observation, nothing can give a better idea of the real position of the English peasantry than these most interesting letters.

† Letters of the Welsh correspondent of the "Times," written during the summer and autumn of 1843.

Colliers and other miners are a much more numerous and important class than rural manufacturers, but they are still less entitled to lengthened notice in this place. There is, perhaps, no body of men whose physical as well as moral condition is more susceptible of improvement, but, among the evils from which they suffer, scanty remuneration, the distinctive symptom of over-population, is rarely to be found. High wages are required to counterbalance the numerous hardships and inconveniences of their mode of life, and miners are always much better paid than any other unskilled labourers in the same neighbourhood. In Staffordshire they earn from 15s. to 18s. a week; in Warwickshire, 18s. a week; in Yorkshire, 20s. to 25s. a week; in Durham and Northumberland, 20s. to 30s. a week; in Cornwall, 40s. to 65s. a month; in South Wales, 25s.to 60s. a week.*

Notwithstanding the generally low remuneration of agricultural labourers, early marriages are very prevalent amongst them, and in most cottages children are more numerous than the adult inmates. The rural population, however, does not advance at the rate which these facts would seem to indicate, owing to the migration which is continually taking place from the country to the towns. The extent of this migration may be ascertained by a comparison of the annual reports of the Registrar-General with the returns of the last census; from which it appears that, in counties containing important manufactures or numerous towns, the increase of population between 1831 and 1841 was much greater, and in counties chiefly agricultural much less, than the annual excess of births over deaths, uninfluenced by other circumstances, would have effected. Thus, in Lancashire, the increase of population in the ten years ending in 1841, was 330,210; and in Cheshire, 60,919; while the excess of births (supposing it to have been the same in each year of the series as in the last year) was only 150,150 in the former, and 28,000 in the latter. In particular towns the contrast is still more striking. In Liverpool and Bristol the annual deaths actually exceed the births, so that these towns are only saved from depopulation by their rural recruits, yet the first increased the number of its inhabitants in ten years by more than one-third, and the other by more than one-sixth. In Manchester the annual excess of births could only have added 19,390 to the population between 1831 and 1841; the actual increase was 68,375. The number of emigrants into Birmingham, during the same period, may, in the same way, be estimated at 40,000; into Leeds, at 8,000; into the metropolis, at 130,000. On the other hand, in Dorset, Somerset, and Devonshire, the actual addition to the population in the same decennial period was only 15,491, 31,802, and 39,253 respectively; although the excess of births over deaths, in the same counties, was about 20,000, 38,600, and 48,700. People cannot, of course, be induced to leave their birthplace and the society of their relatives and friends, and to change their habits and modes of life, except by the hope of some counterbalancing advantage; and accordingly, in most considerable towns, wages, independently of any differences in the nature of the occupation, are generally somewhat higher than in the adjoining country. It scarcely ever happens that any class of townsmen are worse paid than husbandmen, unless their wages have been depressed below their former level by peculiar causes; but an example has been very lately exhibited of such a depression, affecting the whole body of labourers in many English towns, which deserves to be particularly noticed, in order to prevent its being confounded with the ordinary condition of our urban population.

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* Report of Children's Employment Commission in Mines and Collieries.

A very large proportion of the work-people resident in English towns are engaged in manufactures. Using this term in its common and restricted, but not very easily defined sense, as distinguished from handicrafts, and as denoting only part of the processes whereby the raw produce of the earth is converted into fabrics for man's use, more than 400,000 male adults, and a still greater number of females and young persons, are so employed. A short time back, the greater part of this vast multitude seemed to be sunk in the lowest depth of misery. Thousands were absolutely unable to procure employment, and might be seen standing in constrained idleness about the streets; or might be found in their dismal homes, bending over a scanty fire, their heads sunk on their breasts, and surrounded by pale, emaciated beings, imploring them for food, which they knew not where to seek. Others, somewhat less wretched, were able to obtain work, but only irregularly, and at greatly reduced wages. Scarcely any where was there an individual wholly unaffected by the prevailing distress, and who did not perceive its presence, at least in some diminution of his accustomed comforts. These expressions are no rhetorical exaggerations, introduced for the sake of effect. The subject is too serious for such trifling. They are a plain and temperate representation of the recent condition of English operatives, (the modern appellation for manufacturing labourers,) and are supported, as will immediately be seen, by the minutest and most trustworthy evidence.

In January, 1842, when misery in the manufacturing districts was at its height, the poor law commissioners thought it expedient that a searching inquiry should be instituted into the circumstances of some one town situated in those districts; and having selected Stockport as the place which was understood to be in the most deplorable condition, they sent there two of their assistants, to examine into the extent, nature, and causes of the prevailing distress. These gentlemen executed their task with the assiduity and ability which have seldom been wanting in the instruments of the Poor Law Commission, and their report presents a picture of human suffering, at once so severe and so heroically borne, as can scarcely be contemplated without tears of mingled pity and admiration.

Stockport is one of the principal seats of the cotton manufacture, and, five years before the assistant commissioners' visit, had been in a very flourishing condition. The weekly income of the family of a labourer of the lowest class was then seldom less than one pound, and not unfrequently double or treble that amount. Between this time and 1842, not less, apparently, than ten thousand persons were thrown out of employment. Of these, many had migrated from other parts of England, and now returned to their own parishes. Others voluntarily left the town, and went in search of work elsewhere, sometimes exploring the whole of Lancashire and Yorkshire on this errand. Those who remained behind, struggled gallantly before they applied for parochial relief: they first exhausted the little hoard accumulated in better days, and sold or pawned their furniture, eking out the money thus obtained with the earnings of occasional jobs. "They did not appear before us," says the Chairman of the Stockport Board of Guardians, "until their little savings, their household furniture, and nearly the whole of their clothing and bedding had been sold or pawned, in hopes of a change in the times. This hope has been deferred until their souls have sickened within them, and the complaints of their starving wives, and the crying of their hungry children, have driven them to the alternative of applying for relief, or of allowing their families to die from destitution." Instances occurred of persons being brought to a premature grave by the privations they thus voluntarily endured. One of these, who died within a week after the application which he was at last compelled to make to the guardians, being asked why he had not sought relief sooner, replied that he wished to go on as long as he could first—"a very common reason," observed the commissioners' informant, "with some of the poor." Yet, notwithstanding this independence of spirit, and notwithstanding that a large portion of the population of Stockport consisted of strangers not entitled to parochial relief, the number of persons of every description who were able to claim, and were compelled to accept that relief, had increased, in December, 1841, to nearly seven thousand, one-twelfth, at least, of the whole population of the Union. To so large a multitude, only scanty relief could be afforded; not more than one shilling per head weekly. The poor rates, of course, were increased in proportion; but the poverty of the rate-payers created so large a number of defaulters, that the amount collected invariably fell far short, not exceeding two-thirds, at most, of the sum estimated. In fact, out of 7,464 rated houses existing in the township of Stockport at the date of the Report, 1,632 were empty, and for nearly 3,000 more default had occurred.

The commissioners personally visited the dwellings of several poor persons. Many of them are expressly stated to have parted with clothing and bedding, for food, before applying to the parish. One man had pawned his wife's wedding ring for eighteen pence, and his Bible for a shilling. Some were still living by the sale of their effects, and had not yet applied for relief. John Daniels, (his name deserves to be recorded,) a silk weaver, with a wife and five children, having been long without work, was obliged to apply to the parish, and obtained an order for a month for four shillings a week in provisions. The whole of his incomings were then about eight shillings a week. Being asked in what manner he disposed of this pittance, he said, "We make our breakfast for seven of us of a teacup full of oatmeal madei nto thin porridge, together with some bread; at dinner we have about six pounds of potatoes, with salt and bread; the tea, or supper, as you may call it, the same as at breakfast; in the whole about four pounds of bread daily, say eight pence, two-pennyworth of potatoes, and two-pennyworth of oatmeal, amounting to a shilling a day for seven of us. This, and 10d. a week we have to pay for coals, make up the 8s. nearly." This man, on obtaining work, gave up of his own accord part of the allowance ordered for him by the guardians. He had received 4s. a week for three weeks, and when the fourth payment became due, he went to the relieving officer, and said, " I will have no more relief. I have got one warp for myself, and the prospect of another for my wife."

The cases personally inspected by the commissioners, being chiefly those in which relief was received from the parish, did not present the extreme of wretchedness. There were other families, in which, according to the chairman of the Board of Guardians, it had been ascertained that many women had " no clothes but a chemise, or wretched outer garment; no flannel petticoat, or any thing fit to keep out the pinching cold of winter." The want of bedding was still more general. " A few flocks, or a little straw, spread in the corner of the room or cellar," were all that some poor creatures possessed, with "no covering but a single sheet or rug. Many had to lie together, to the number of six, seven, eight, and more, of both sexes, indiscriminately huddled together in their clothes, covered by an old sack or rug." As for the food of these miserable beings, it commonly consisted of a little oatmeal, or a few potatoes, or perhaps a little bread. " Families," said a provision dealer, "that used to buy flour, now purchase only oatmeal; they come for one or two pounds of oatmeal a day, and live upon it." A furniture broker, who was also examined by the commissioners, said, " People now bring articles of such a mean description, as they would never have thought of bringing for sale before. They offer me knives and forks, bits of old iron, anything which they have about them, and they tell me they want to raise money to buy a few potatoes with, just to carry them on another week. As for clothing, I have never seen children so badly clothed. The children come to me often with their mothers, begging their mothers to sell small articles, to get a bit of bread or a few potatoes."

A few weeks previously to the arrival of the commissioners at Stockport, a considerable sum had been raised by subscription for the relief of the poor, and a committee, composed of the principal municipal authorities, the clergy of all denominations, and some of the leading manufacturers of the place, was appointed for the management of the fund. In a circular issued by this committee, which is recommended by the commissioners to attention, " as representing the impressions of all parties in the borough respecting the extent of the distress," is the following statement. " Of 15,823 individuals inhabiting 2,965 houses, lately visited under the direction of a committee appointed for the purpose, 1,204 only are found to be fully employed, 2,866 partially employed, and 4,148 able to work, *were wholly without employment.* The remaining 7,605 persons were unable to work. The average weekly income of the above 15,823 persons was 1s. 4¾d. each. The average weekly wages of those fully employed were 7s. 6½d. each. The average weekly wages of those partially employed, 4s. 7½d. each."*

The distress of which these are such convincing proofs was aggravated at Stockport by local causes, but it existed in a degree very little inferiour in most other manufacturing towns. It was particularly severe throughout Lancashire and those parts of Yorkshire in which the cotton manufacture has its principal seat. In Manchester, there were said to be 9,000 families earning on an average only 1s. a week. In Bolton, out of 50 mills, which had formerly employed 8,124 workmen, 30 mills with

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* Messrs. Power and Twistleton's Rep. on the State of the Population of Stockport, *passim.*

5,061 work-people were standing idle, or working only short time.* The weekly earnings of the bedquilt and counterpane weavers were reduced to less than one-half of their amount in 1838. Those of the hand loom weavers, though long before depressed, had fallen again from 6s. to 3s. 7½d. The destitution of the operatives and the embarrassments of their employers were shared largely by the tradesmen and handicraftsmen whose customers they had been. In Bolton a diminution of £3,651 took place in the weekly amount of wages paid in twelve trades. Out of 150 carpenters formerly earning 25s. a week each, only twenty-five remained in full work and fifteen in half work, and the number of stone masons was reduced from 140 earning 34s. a week to 50 earning 10s. 6d.† Very similar, and not much more moderate were the sufferings of the cloth workers of Yorkshire and Wiltshire, of the silk weavers of Spitalfields and Macclesfield, the lace makers of Nottinghamshire, the potters of Staffordshire, and the hardware makers of the same county, of Warwickshire, and Sheffield. In the last-mentioned town, where, in 1836, there was not a single able-bodied man out of employment, there were, in 1842, one thousand families supported by contributions from the trades to which they belonged, at the rate of 1s. 3d. weekly for each person, and hundreds more were in the receipt of parish relief.‡ In Leeds, 4,025 families, being one-fifth of the whole population, were dependant on the poor's rates.§ But it is needless to multiply examples, for no one can have forgotten the formidable riots that took place in the midland counties in the summer of 1842, and which sufficiently attested the desperate condition to which the operatives were reduced. Almost everywhere and in almost every manufacture the complaint of the workmen was the same, of the difficulty of obtaining employment, and of the utter impossibility of earning a competent livelihood. If this state of things had continued through a long series of years, no further proof would be required that the number of operatives was excessive. But the condition of permanence was fortunately wanting. The distress did not last more than three years. Symptoms of its approach were perceptible earlier, but its presence was not manifest till 1840, and towards the end of 1842 it began to subside. Both previously and subsequently to this period, the condition of manufacturing labourers (with one or two important exceptions) was, as it still continues to be, little less comfortable than that of great bodies of men similarly employed has ever been. It has been mentioned that from 20s. to 60s. a week were the usual earnings of a labouring family in Stockport previously to the late severe distress. In 1835, the average weekly earnings of adult operatives are said to have been 16s. 6¼d.; but, from numerous examples, it would seem that single workmen of a superiour order, such as spinners and dressers, earned from 20s. to 25s.‖ In Manchester, according to a table drawn up by the Chamber of Commerce in 1832, the usual weekly wages of male spinners were from 20s. to 25s.; of females, 10s. to 15s.; of stretchers, 25s.; of dressers, 28s. to 30s.; of mechanics, 24s. to 26s.; of carders, 14s. 6d. to 17s.; of male weavers, 13s. to 16s. 10d.; of female do., 8s. to 12s.;

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* Lord Kinnaird in House of Lords, 2d June, 1842.

† Dr. Bowring, in House of Commons, 15th Feb., 1843.

‡ Mr. Ward, in House of Commons, 14th Feb., 1843.

§ Leeds Mercury, 25th June, 1843.

‖ Stockport Commissioners' Report.

of machine makers and iron founders, 24s. to 30s. In Bradford, in 1839, the average rate of wages in the woollen and cotton mills, was, of men, 15s. to 35s. a week; of women, 8s. to 15s.; and of children, 2s. 6d. to 7s. At Sheffield, about the same time, wages varied from 12s. to 40s. a week. At Birmingham, the average was about 23s. 6d.; the average amount received by 76 persons employed in 32 different occupations having been 23s.[*] These were the rates a few years back, and they seem to be quite as high at present. In November, 1843, according to statements obtained by Mr. Cobden, female weavers in Lancashire were earning on an average from 10s. to 12s. a week, and many families employed in factories could be found earning altogether more than £2 weekly.[†] Three months later, Mr. Bright, M. P. for Durham, stated, that in his own mill, employing 518 persons, the average wages of adult males were 16s. 2d., and of adult females 11s. 10d.; and that of 51 families in his service, the average income was 35s. 9d. a week, or £92 19s. a year.[‡] Calico printers in Lancashire, working ten hours a day, receive from 30s. to 45s. a week, if machine printers, and if block printers can earn from £1 to £1 10s.[§] The men employed in the Staffordshire potteries earn from £1 4s. to £2 a week, according to the sort of work they are engaged upon, and as the processes are such as admit of employment of whole families, their united earnings are sometimes £3 or £4 a week.[||] At Kidderminster, the carpet weavers earn from *£1 10s.* to £2 17s. a week. At Birmingham, many workmen earn from 30s. to 50s. a week, and many women, from 10s. to 14s. a week. Of 134 males of the age of 21 and upwards, members of a provident institution, the average weekly earnings were found to be £1 4s. 2d.

How far such wages as these are equal to the maintenance of an average family, will be seen, on reference to the subjoined table, showing the

	Total Expenditure of the whole Family per week.			Expenditure of each Individual per week.	
	£	s.	d.	s.	d.
Rent,	0	5	0	0	10
Flour,	0	5	10	0	11⅓
Meat,	0	4	8	0	9¼
Bacon,	0	0	4	0	¾
Butter,	0	2	0	0	4
Eggs,	0	1	0	0	2
Milk,	0	0	10	0	1½
Potatoes,	0	1	8	0	3¼
Cheese,	0	0	9	0	1½
Tea,	0	1	0	0	2
Coffee,	0	0	6	0	1
Sugar,	0	2	0	0	4
Soap,	0	0	6	0	1
Candles,	0	0	6	0	1
Salt,	0	0	1	0	0
Coals,	0	1	2	0	2¼
	1	7	10	4	8

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[*] See Mr. Symons' "Arts and Artizans at Home and Abroad," 1839.

[†] Times, Dec. 1, 1843.

[‡] Hansard's Parl. Deb., 15th March, 1844.

[§] Mr. Kennedy's Rept. to Children's Employment Commissioners.

[||] Mr. Scriven's Rept. to Children's Employment Commissioners.

way in which a family of six persons do actually live, in Manchester, upon 34s. 6d. a week.*

The fact of every individual here having been able to spend a few pence a week on the superfluities of sugar, tea, and coffee, shows, that there can have been no want of the more indispensable articles of food, more especially as one of the family may be supposed to have been an infant that did not consume the whole of its allowance.

We have thus given the condition of the two great classes into which the labour of England is divided, that our readers may see, that the evils under which they groan are inherent defects in the condition of both, and not therefore attributable to any particular cause depending upon the nature of the employment in which the labourer may be engaged.

Doubtless, the extreme density of the population is one great cause, but the system of tithes, by which one-tenth is paid to the sustainment of the church, and which is a direct tax upon labour, and the remnant of their feudal tenures, by which the land is held in large bodies by the privileged classes, must greatly add to the burthens thrown upon the working portion of the community.

It is probable the new plan proposed by Sir Robert Peel, of the let up, and final repeal of the corn laws, may divide the landed property—for the gentry, who have their large estates heavily mortgaged, may be obliged to sell them, and if so, their division among a larger portion of the people, may produce some relief.

But the repeal of the corn laws of Great Britain is so thorough a change of the whole policy heretofore pursued, that no man living can tell what will be its effect until it is tried. It does not strike us that it is to be of any very great relief to the labourer, inasmuch as we are not enabled to see, why a reduction of the price of grain should not produce a corresponding depression in the price of labour, and should grain continue to maintain its present price, then it is difficult to perceive how the poorer classes are to benefit.

All we can certainly predict from it is, that it will produce no advantage to the grain-growing States of this country. Upwards of 16,000,000 of bushels of wheat, per annum, if not a much greater quantity, will be always at hand in Continental Europe, which has no other market than Great Britain, and there, whatever England may need must go, and as we have already shown, she has never, on any average of ten past years, needed a foreign supply of 8,000,000 of bushels.

Such then is the condition of the population for the benefit of which Sir Robert Peel has to legislate. Is it then any wonder that he should desire to relieve them? Nay, would it not be very wonderful that he should not?

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* Mr. Kennedy's Report to Children's Employment Commissioners.

ANOTHER LETTER

FROM THE HON. ABBOTT LAWRENCE, TO THE HON. WM. C. RIVES.

We have now the pleasure of recording another letter from the Hon. Abbott Lawrence, to the Hon. William C. Rives, on the subject of our present revenue system, and the proposed alterations in accordance with the extraordinary Report of Mr. Secretary Walker. We have never seen, within the same space, more facts and statistics, bearing upon the great question of the home industry, than are contained in this letter, and which carry an irresistible conviction with them, that should claim the attention of every thinking and reasoning man in the whole Union. There is, however, one subject on which we have a word to say, with all deference and respect for the opinion of so competent a judge as Mr. Lawrence, and that is, on the propriety of reducing the duty on coarse cotton goods. We have no doubt Mr. Lawrence is correct in his data, and that, as he says, "We have *now* certainly nothing to fear in the manufacture of yarns as high as No. 14. So far we can go on without protection." We do not doubt this in the least, but we must be permitted to say, we doubt the policy of disturbing the present tariff, not on account of the manufacturing interest, so much as on account of the cotton grower; and our reasons are, first, that if the domestic article now supplies, and would continue, without duty, to supply the home market, then there is *now* no protection, and a change in the mere wording of the revenue law, would be only striking off a dead letter from the statute, which surely could not produce any actual change in the revenue. But there is another reason, which we confess operates somewhat with us, and that is, that cotton yarn, up to No. 14, made in England, is not made of any thing like as good a staple, as the same yarns made in this country. Nay, they are, if we are rightly informed, not made of American cotton, but of the shorter staple, and lower priced cottons of Bombay and Surat, perhaps mixed with the refuse American cotton. These coarse and heavy goods, moreover, consume a very large amount of cotton, and we think it would not, therefore, be a judicious move, to make an alteration which could do no possible good, and might introduce an inferiour article, to be sold at a trifle less in price, overloading the market to the injury of the cotton planter. There is still another reason, and that is, the difficulty of confining the importer within the limits of the law. Thus much we have ventured in all diffidence to say on this subject, not doubting in the slightest degree the fact stated by Mr. Lawrence.

The truth, however, is, that our possession of the home market, is what enables us to export. Take away *that*, and there is an end of all exportation—for the foreign demand is not sufficient at this time to enable us to continue our manufactures of cotton. But we have said enough, and although we should fear nothing for the manufacturer, if the duty were reduced on cottons made from yarn at and under No. 14, yet, if Mr. Walker's principles of ad valorem duties on the foreign cost are established, the utter impossibility of preventing frauds will render of little consequence a discrimination in the duties at any point of supposed value.

With these few remarks we cordially commend to our readers this invaluable letter, which, whatever may be the issue of the tariff question, will remain as a monument of practical wisdom and knowledge, that will never be forgotten.

If Mr. Walker, and those who act with him, shall succeed, he will have an opportunity in his retirement to study this letter, and regret his precipitancy in undertaking to give advice upon a subject of which he was wholly ignorant. But if wiser counsel shall prevail, and the truths contained in this letter shall, by the conviction they carry with them, induce Congress to permit the countty to go on in its present prosperous course, Mr. Walker himself will live to see the day when he will acknowledge his errour and be thankful there were those who stopped him in his mad career, among whom none will have stronger claims upon the country than the Hon. Abbott Lawrence.

FROM THE HON. ABBOTT LAWRENCE TO THE HON. WM. C. RIVES.

No. III.

Boston, Feb. 28, 1846.

My Dear Sir—When I wrote to you on the 16th of last month, I proposed to present in another letter some facts in regard to the progress of the spinning of cotton since the first high protective tariff in 1816, to the cotton year ending 31st of August, 1845.

These I shall offer for the special consideration of those who inhabit the cotton-growing region of our country, and of those who brought forward and carried that law through Congress.

The tariff law of 1816 was founded in wisdom, and I am ready here to make my acknowledgements to those distinguished statesmen of the cotton-growing States who successfully consummated an act that has done so much to promote the prosperity of the whole Union.

The primary object on the part of those members of Congress representing the cotton-planting States, in establishing a high protective tariff, was to extend the consumption of their great staple in this country, by excluding foreign made cotton fabrics, and substituting a domestic article manufactured of American cotton. I think the authors of the tariff law of 1816 may congratulate themselves, and their countrymen, on the complete success that has followed from the adoption of the minimum of twenty-five cents the square yard, contained in that bill. Under its beneficial operation we have been enabled to supply our own population with cottons of the coarse and middling qualities, and to export to foreign countries to the amount of four or five millions of dollars annually—for which we receive in payment tea, coffee, sugar, hides, copper, &c. These goods, the product of our own labour, have become a substitute for coin in the several countries to which they are shipped.

It would seem that the founders of this system of high protection to labour ought to be satisfied with its results, as the quantity of cotton now spun in the United States is far greater than the most sanguine of its friends anticipated in 1816. According to a statement made up by Mr. P. T. Jackson, and Mr. John A. Lowell, for the use of the tariff convention held in New York in 1832, the home consumption of cotton prior to the passage of the act of 1816, was eleven millions of pounds, being about three-eighths of the quantity now spun at Lowell.

The quantity spun in Great Britain, in 1816, was eighty-eight millions of pounds. There are no data to be relied upon for continuous returns of home consumption, between 1816 and 1825–26.

In 1826–27, the returns were made in a New York price current, and they have since been continued, and are deemed to be as correct as the nature of the case will admit.

In 1826–27, the amount spun in the United States was 103,483 bales, which we may estimate at 330 lbs. each, (nett of tare,) equal to 34,149,390 pounds.

In the same year, the quantity spun in Great Britain was 197,200,000 pounds. From 1828 to 1830 was a period of embarrassment and distress *among manufacturers*, consequently the consumption of 1829–30 was only 126,512 bales, of about 345 pounds each, amounting to 43,646,640 pounds; while the consumption in Great Britain was 247,600,000 pounds. At this period some of our Southern friends, who had been foremost in advocating home manufactures, and had counted largely on the benefits anticipated by them in 1816, from the operation of the protective policy, (as greatly augmenting the consumption of their staple,) began to manifest dissatisfaction with what they considered the slow progress of our cotton manufactures. The idea entertained, and put forth, was, that we should never require so much as to bear any considerable proportion to the consumption of Great Britain. This, as will be shown, was a false view of the case, and has proved a capital errour.

In 1832–33, the quantity spun at home reached 194,412 bales, averaging perhaps 360 lbs. each; in 1835–36, 236,733 bales; in 1837–38, 246,063 bales; in 1839–40, 295,193 bales; in 1841–42, there was deep commercial and manufacturing distress, and consumption receded to 267,850 bales. In the latter part of the year 1842, and in 1843, after the present tariff law went into operation, a revival of business throughout the country took place, and brought up the amount spun to 325,129 bales.

In 1744–45, (year ending 31st of August last,) the amount spun was 389,006 bales. There is a quantity of cotton consumed in the interiour of the States, which, never having reached the seaports, is not included in the New York statement, that has been estimated to be at least 41,000 bales; we shall therefore estimate the total quantity at 430,000 bales, of 410 pounds each, nett, making a total of 176,300,000 pounds as the consumption last year, against 11,000,000 pounds in 1816—being a period of 29 years.

The consumption in Great Britain has gone on steadily increasing, but not in so rapid a ratio as in the United States. The returns for 1845 have been received,* and amount to 560,000,000 pounds against 176,300,000 pounds in the United States. Thus the increase in the United States from 1816 to 1845 has extended from 11,000,000 to 176,300,000 pounds in 29 years, being an an augmentation of *sixteenfold*. The increase in Great Britiain in the same period of time has been from 88,700,000

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* Quantity of Yarns spun in Great Britain in 1845:
494,000,000 pounds.

Exported in Yarns,.......	134,500,000 lbs.,	valued at 12d., 24 cts.,.....	$32,280,000
Exported in manufactures,	202,360,000 lbs.,	valued at 18⅛d., 36¼ cts.,....	73,000,000
Consumed at home,.......	158,000,000 lbs.,	valued at 40 cts.,..........	63,200,000
	494,860,000		
Whole value of Cotton manufactured in England,..................			$168,380,000

pounds to 560,000,000 pounds; being an augmentation of less than sevenfold, against an increase in the United States of *sixteenfold*.

These are not only striking, but important facts, and present a view of the case, which refutes the anticipations of those who entertain different opinions of the future increase of the spinning of cotton in this country, fifteen years ago. I cannot but hope that the views and opinions of some of the prominent men of the South may undergo a change, when they examine this question dispassionately; and that they will come to the conclusion that they are deeply interested in the spinning, as well as in the producing of cotton, at home. As regards the future, if the general peace of the world be maintained, and the leading business concerns of the country are not disturbed by the legislative action of the Federal Government, there is no reason why the increased home demand for cotton should not go on in as rapid a ratio. as during the past. This would be doubling the present consumption in a little more than eight years.

There are now an immense number of spindles under construction in a majority of the States, (probably not less than 500,000,) all of which are intended to be in operation before the first of January, 1850, and the probability is, that at that time the quantity of cotton spun will reach 650,000 bales, of 410 pounds each, or 266,500,000 pounds. There will, also, be a great increase in Great Britain, but not in the same proportion; as we possess some advantages in the manufacture of heavy goods, which are not enjoyed in England. So long as we produce better goods, and can maintain our superiority abroad, there will be a constantly increasing export demand, which is of great value to the whole country. Upon a review of this branch of industry, it appears to me that its future prospects are excellent, if not disturbed by bad banking, and (what is still more pernicious to all branches of business) unstable and unwise legislation.

The tariff has already been altered several times (I believe six or seven) since 1816.

If the present movement against the act of 1842 shall succeed, in accordance with Mr. Walker's plan, it must be followed soon by a counter movement; if not on the part of the people, the government itself will recommend it, for revenue.

It may be truly asserted that the coarse cotton fabrics, such as are worn by the labouring classes, are sold as cheap here as in England, or in any part of the world. Of course there is no further burden imposed on the consumers of this description of home-made goods. It has been said that the existing duties on cotton goods prevent importations of almost every kind. This is so far from the fact, that for the last three years the amount of cotton, and mixed cotton and worsted fabrics, printed and plain, imported, have been larger than in former years, having ranged from $10,000,000 to $13,000,000. This large amount is of the finer descriptions, and such as are worn by the fashionable and rich. We shall continue to import largely of these luxuries, so long as our people have surplus means to expend in dress; and the permanent revenue, under the present system, will be much greater than under that proposed by the Secretary of the Treasury.

The question has often been asked, why not reduce the duties on cottons, if you can sell them so low; I answer, that the duty now is nearly inoperative, entirely so on some kinds, such, for example, as are exported in large quantities. If the duties were reduced materially on the coarse goods, I should interpose no objection, provided ample protection was maintained on the middling and fine qualities. This is a matter to be carefully arranged by practical men. We have now certainly nothing to fear in the manufacture of yarns as high as No. 14—so far, we can go on without protection; but the higher numbers require protection, and it should be a specific duty. The law, as it now stands, although inoperative on coarse cloth, gives confidence to the investment of capital in machinery for the manufacture of finer fabrics; in fact, a very large amount is already invested in mills which produce yarns and cloth as high as No. 60. Without protection, and that in the form of specific duties, there will be no increase of machinery adapted to the middling and fine fabrics. The great amount of printed calicoes require protection, and will suffer severely without it. I will not dwell longer on this subject of cotton. I trust I have presented facts enough to satisfy the cotton planter that his interests have been promoted by creating another market, and a larger one, too, for the spinning of his staple. We actually consume (wear) more pounds of cotton in this country than in Great Britain—since nearly more than two-thirds of the quantity spun in that country is exported in the form of yarns and cloth. *We* work up more than France, and quite as much as 60,000,000 of Germans. Our consuming ability of this, and all other comforts of life, is beyond that of an equal number of persons of any other country, and five times as great as that of Russia.

The factories of only Massachusetts and a neighbouring State spin annually 180,000 bales of cotton.

We received one million of barrels of flour (more than the whole export of the United States to foreign countries) the last year. The amount of products of States out of New England, taken by Massachusetts the last year, amounted to $40,000,000, in cotton, lead, wool, sugar, coal, iron, flour, grain of all sorts, pork, beef, lard, tobacco, rice, &c. &c.; for which we paid in the products of our labour; and this is a steady and increasing market for the articles I have named.

In fact, the State of Massachusetts (not to speak of the other New England States, which are all large consumers) affords greater support to the agricultural and planting States, South and West, than any other in the Union, and greater to the strictly agricultural States than all foreign countries. The tariff of 1842 was enacted as much for the benefit of the Southern and Western States, as for Massachusetts, and they have derived as much advantage from it in proportion to their capital. Of the truth of this declaration, they will be satisfied, after a year's experience under Mr. Walker's plan of low ad valorem duties.

The notion is prevalent, I am fully aware, that the Northern and Eastern States, those engaged in manufacturing, enjoy the principal benefits from the present tariff. But this is not the case. By reference to the following quantities of protected articles, produced out of New England, almost wholly, you will see that there are other great protected interests in the country besides the manufacture of cotton and wool. The duties on these are from 40 to 100 per cent. and on spirits to a greater extent. There are produced from

450,000 to 500,000 tons of iron.
220,000,000 lbs. of sugar.
20,000,000 lbs. maple sugar.
9,000,000 to 12,000,000 galls. molasses.
5,000,000 to 7,000,000 tons of coal.
50,000,000 to 60,000,000 lbs. of wool.
10,000,000 bushels salt.
60,000,000 to 70,000,000 gallons of spirits, mostly from grain.
12,000,000 to 15,000,000 yds. cot. bagging.
20,000,000 lbs. of bale rope and twine.
80,000 to 90,000 tons of hemp and flax.

To this list might be added twenty minor articles, worth, in the aggregate, more than the whole amount of cotton fabrics produced in the United States.

Of iron we still import 70,000 to 80,000 tons, including nearly all used on railoads, which can and will be produced at home as soon as increased capital is acquired. We now produce more iron than France or Russia, or any other country save Great Britain, whose product is now 1,500,000 tons.

Within a few years there can be no doubt that the product of iron will be doubled, provided the prosperity of the country is not interfered with by experiments made by Congress on the labour and currency of the country, which is a greater discouragement to branches of business requiring large, fixed capital, than is imagined by many of our legislators who make and unmake tariffs.

It is estimated that at the present prices of sugar, the cultivation, in a very brief period of time, will be extended to the required home consumption, now about 300,000,000 pounds, which in ten years may be 500,000,000 pounds. I have no doubt that the best interests of the nation require that the present duty on sugar should be maintained with other protective duties. This extension of sugar cultivation will employ a large amount of labour, now devoted to the production of cotton.

It would seem that several States of the Union might with profit multiply the occupations of labour. It appears to me, they require new sources of support; and the progress and condition of their population, with the amount of production, present to the reflecting portion of the people a strong argument in favour of such new sources. I will state a few facts.

The State of Virginia contains 64,000 square miles; had, in 1840, 1,239,797 inhabitants, being less than 19 to the square mile; gross products, according to Professor Tucker, $76,769,053.

New York contains 46,000 square miles; had, in 1840, 2,498,917 inhabitants; products in the same year, $193,806,433; add the product of navigation, as distinct from commerce, which is omitted, on 650,000 tons shipping, $20,000,000; making, in the aggregate, $213,000,000.

In 1790, by the first census, Virginia had 12 persons to the square mile, and New York 7½; now, Virginia contains 19, and New York 53 to the square mile.

In 1820, Virginia had a population of 1,065,379; in 1830, 1,211,405; in 1840, 1,239,797. New York, in 1820, 1,372,812; in 1830, 1,918,608; in 1840, 2,428,921.

In 1850, New York will probably contain nearly 3,000,000, and Virginia say 1,260,000. These facts, one would suppose, were sufficient to induce the people of Virginia to introduce new branches of industry, and to establish the modern internal improvements for transportation, that the rich resources of the State may be developed. The condition of the two Carolinas are much the same as Virginia. The population of North and South Carolina, in 1830, was 1,319,172; in 1840, 1,347,817—increase 2¼ per cent. in ten years, (principally in North Carolina.)

Even in Great Britain, the increase in the same time was 11 per cent. In Massachusetts, although there were 81½ to the square mile in 1830, against 17 in the Carolinas, there was an increase of 21 per cent. from 1830 to 1840. The aggregate products of the two Carolinas in 1840 was $59,595,734, with a population of 1,347,817. The products of Massachusetts, with a population of less than 800,000 people, amounted at the same time to $100,000,000, and now the products of labour and capital are more than $120,000,000.

I have introduced these statements for the purpose of exhibiting fairly the true condition of some of the old States and to awaken the public mind in those States to the importance of bringing out their productive labour, by introducing new branches of business, in order that the industrial classes may be profitably employed, and to show that the three States named have as great a stake in protecting the labour of the country as any other in the Union. They have now but little else than soil and physical power remaining. You possess but a small amount of productive power, in the form of railroads and labour-saving machines. You have a deep interest, in common with all the States, in upholding the labour of the country. You seem to be satisfied that the time has come when something should be done to improve the condition of your people. The people of Virginia, with South and North Carolina, (particularly the two former States,) have pursued a policy that has brought them, so far as population is concerned, to a stationary condition; and from present indications, I should not be surprised to see Eastern Virginia and South Carolina with a less number of people in 1850 than they contained in 1840.

If you propose now to enter upon those pursuits that are certain in their operations to give employment, and that of a profitable kind, to your people, and to create a market at home for your agricultural products, what object can there be in transferring our workshops to Great Britain? The South and West have every motive to give efficient protection to the labour of the whole Union: first, because those employed in the mechanical and manufacturing arts are the best customers for your agricultural products; and secondly, because you desire to engage in those departments of labour yourselves. I say, then, look well to this project, now under consideration at Washington, to change our whole revenue system. There is one principle upon which every government, and every commercial community with which I am acquainted, agree throughout the world; and that is, to establish specific duties, or a *valuation of their own*. Mr. Walker has reversed this decision, and recommends ad valorem duties on an *alleged* valuation *abroad*. I deem this feature in the bill a violation of sound principle, and such as must be condemned by men, of all parties, whose experience and knowledge are of value. It is no other, in practice, than to drive from our foreign trade a large number of honest importing merchants, and to place their business in the hands of unscrupulous foreigners. Time may reveal the truth of this prediction.

The President and his Secretary of the Treasury have stated that the operations of the present tariff law oppressed the poor. I confess this assertion surprised me, coming from high functionaries of the government, who have the means of obtaining correct information. I assume the responsibility of stating, that a labouring man may be, and is, clothed with American manufactures, from the crown of his head to the sole of foot, as cheaply as a labouring man in Great Britain, or any other part of Europe, who wears as comfortable garments; and that the revenue is raised principally from articles consumed by those classes of society who are in easy pecuniary circumstances. I beg to refer Mr. Walker to the reports from the customs, and ask the favour of him to present them to the President, and he will there find the only article on which the poor man is taxed to any extent, is sugar, and that cannot be deemed very onerous when he obtains his tea and coffee free of duty, and with a favourable prospect, if the present duty be maintained, of very soon being supplied from our own soil with sugar at a price much below that now paid. It is an errour of the President and Secretary to put forth a statement that the tariff of 1842 oppresses the poor man, when the principal part of the revenue is derived rather from the luxuries than the necessaries of life.

When we hear from high sources of transferring our workshops to Manchester, Birmingham, and Leeds, I should be glad to know if it be proposed to transfer our intelligent workmen with them, and whether a farmer in Ohio can be made to believe that these men will eat more of his beef and pork in Old than in New England. This is a strange doctrine, and sounds to me quite anti-American, and are just such sentiments as were uttered by the old Tories previous to the Revolutionary War.

There is one other point to which I shall allude in the Report of the Hon. Secretary. He says that the wages of labour are lower now than previous to the tariff of 1842. If he means the wages of labour in the manufacturing portions of the country, I will state a fact, which, I think, completely illustrates the incorrectness of his assertion.

In the State of Massachusetts, the institutions for savings are obliged by law to make returns to the Legislature. In the annual returns, just published, I find the following:

Savings Banks in Massachusetts.

	Number of Depositors.	Amount Deposited.	Increase in Depositors.	Increase in amount deposited.
1841,..............................	39,832	$6,485,424 82		
1842,..............................	41,102	6,675,878 05	1,270	$190,458 23
1845,..............................	54,256	9,214,954 07	13,154	2,539,076 02

Being an increase from 1841 to 1842 of about 3 per cent. on depositors, and about 3¼ per cent. on amount deposited; and an increase from 1842 to 1845 of about 32 per cent. on depositors, or nearly 11 per cent. per annum, and about 38 per cent. on amount deposited, or nearly 13 per cent. per annum.

I shall make no comments upon this extraordinary exhibition of the increase of depositors and deposites, further than to state that all the world know for whom those admirable institutions were established, and by whom they are used.

I will not trouble you with more facts, arguments, or illustrations upon this great question, national in its character, and as broad as the limits of the Union, and one that reaches the condition of every individual in it.

I have personally no more interest than any other citizen. If the government adopt a course of measures that prostrates the labour of the country, I shall, in common with every other citizen, feel its effects. We are, I hold, one great family, and indissolubly linked together, and the chain cannot be touched without the vibration being felt at either extremity.

I entertain and cherish a strong American feeling; although born and bred in Massachusetts, I have a feeling of pride in the honour and character of every State in our Union. I desire to see our whole population go onward and upward in a course of prosperity and happiness. My affections for this country are not bounded by geographical lines, and whether I find myself in Maine or in Georgia, still I am an American citizen, protected by the same constitution and laws of one of the most prosperous and happy countries upon which the sun ever shone. With all our party strifes and bickerings, the country goes on prospering, and I trust, to prosper. I have only to ask of those who are now the actors on our great political stage, not to experiment upon the prosperity and destinies of a happy and contented people. With sentiments of the highest respect and regard, I remain, dear sir,

Your friend and obedient servant,

ABBOTT LAWRENCE.

To Hon. Wm. C. Rives, Castle Hill, Albemarle County, Virginia.

THE WHEAT TRADE
OF
THE UNITED STATES AND EUROPE.

The recent proposed change in the British corn laws, introduced into Parliament by Sir Robert Peel, having for its object the admission of foreign grain into the ports of Great Britain at nominal rates of duty, excites, as a matter of course, much attention in the United States. Various statements and calculations have appeared in the public journals, with regard to the effect to be produced upon the interests of the American people by the proposed change. Although we believe an undue importance is attached to the projected measure, with regard to its effect upon our trade and industrial pursuits, we propose, in this article, to inquire into the subject of the relative production of wheat in the United States and European countries, the consumption and wants of Great Britain with regard to a supply of the staff of life, and the comparative capacity of the United States and the wheat-growing countries of Europe, to furnish the required supply for the wants of Great Britain.

We shall accompany our remarks with such statements and tables, illustrating prices, consumption, and trade in wheat and flour, as we can conveniently obtain; regretting, at the same time, that these statements are not more full and complete. The want of a statistical bureau at Washington, similar to that attached to the Board of Trade in England, which should be devoted to the collection of materials of information particularly relating to our home industry, is sensibly felt by all who make inquiries on important subjects, for the purpose of presenting results to the public.

We are indebted to C. G. Childs, Esq., editor of the Philadelphia Price Current and Commercial List, for a valuable Essay on the Flour and Wheat Trade of the United States, accompanied with a variety of important tables, which was published in his paper in January, 1842. Although four years have transpired since its publication, this article has lost but little of its value, and we consider it as the most elaborate and intelligent view of the subject on which it treats that has ever come to our notice. For many of the facts we shall now present, we adopt the statements of Mr. Childs; also those in a memorial of Mr. Joshua Leavitt, to Congress, in June, 1842, on the subject of the Grain and Flour Trade. We were aware, at the time, that Mr. Leavitt made very extensive inquiries, and collected many important facts, throwing light on the subject of his investigations.

We have also availed ourselves of the answers and statements of agriculturists to the queries of the Secretary of the Treasury, contained in his recent voluminous Report; and have extended our inquiries to such other sources of information as time would permit.

PRODUCT OF WHEAT IN THE UNITED STATES.

We first present the amount of wheat grown in the United States in 1839, according to the census of 1840, and the estimate for 1845, agreeably to the estimate in the Report of the Commissioner of Patents; with regard to the latter, we do not place much confidence in its correctness, although we are aware that Mr. Ellsworth, the late commisioner, who, we learn, assisted in this report, has heretofore taken much pains in endeavouring to obtain information for a probable basis for his calculations. Mr. Childs divides the States and Territories into three districts; the first containing the six New England States; the second, the States in what may be called the "Wheat District," extending from 35 to 45° north latitude, and from longitude 5° east to 15° west of Washington City; and the third, States south of latitude 35°. In the table of wheat-growing States, we have included North Carolina, (although Mr. Childs places it in the District south of the wheat section, for the reason that the soil in general is better adapted to Indain corn, and the quantity grown of that grain is large.) A great part of that State lies north of 35°, and a considerable quantity of wheat is raised for export.

WHEAT-GROWING DISTRICT.	Wheat—bushels of 60 lbs. grown—	
	in 1839, per census.	in 1845, estimated.
New York,	12,286,418	16,200,000
New Jersey,	774,203	1,050,000
Pennsylvania,	13,213,077	12,520,000
Delaware,	315,165	440,000
Maryland,	3,345,783	4,384,000
District of Columbia,	12,147	15,000
Virginia,	10,109,716	11,885,000
North Carolina,	1,960,855	1,969,000
Kentucky,	4,803,152	4,769,000
Tennessee,	4,569,692	8,340,000
Ohio,	16,571,661	13,572,000
Michigan,	2,157,108	7,061,000
Illinois,	3,335,393	4,563,000
Indiana,	4,049,375	7,044,000
Missouri,	1,037,386	1,525,000
Wisconsin,	212,116	971,000
Iowa,	154,693	793,000
	78,907,940	97,101,000
NEW ENGLAND STATES,	2,014,120	2,363,000
STATES SOUTH OF 35° NORTH LATITUDE,	3,901,212	7,084,000
Total United States,	84,823,272	106,548,000

It is very generally believed abroad, (says Mr. Childs,) that wheat is of very general culture in this country, but such is not the fact. The cultivation of wheat was commenced in the New England States at quite an early date after their first settlement, and with sufficient success to supply the wants of the colonists, but it could not be continued with profit when Pennsylvania was settled, and its lands, more congenial to wheat, subjected to the plough. Then the hardy and industrious sons of the Puritans found it their interest to follow the fisheries and navigation of the ocean, and by exchange of its productions, purchase flour and grain from the descendants of the companions of Penn. The efforts made since the Revolution, and by aid of bounties, even down to the present time, to revive the cultivation of wheat in the Eastern section of the Union, have proved alike unsuccessful; and the agricultural pursuits of New England will, doubtless, in future be confined to the more suitable products of Indian corn and potatoes, with pasturage of cattle, and increased growth of wool in parts more remote from the sea-board.

It may be remarked of New Jersey that, although within the wheat latitude, it cannot be called a wheat-growing State, as in all that part towards the ocean, on which the State borders for near 150 miles, the soil is too light and sandy for this grain, and Indian corn and rye are its leading products. The quantity of wheat grown in the State, therefore, is but about one-half the amount required for the consumption of its own inhabitants.

In reference to the culture of wheat in both the Eastern and Southern sections of the United States—General Washington, in his letter to Arthur Young, dated December 5, 1791, gives the following opinion: "But the country, beyond these, (New York and New Jersey,) to the eastward, (and the further you advance that way it is still more so,) is unfriendly to wheat, which is subject to blight and mildew, and of late years, to a fly, which has almost discouraged the growth of it. The lands, however, in the New England States, are strong and productive of other crops. To the southward of Virginia, the climate is not well adapted to wheat, and the less so as you penetrate the warmer latitudes." Experience has fully confirmed the correctness of his judgement, and it is now admitted that in neither of these districts can wheat be raised to profit, even in competition with the more remote parts of the great wheat district, since the cost of transportation has been reduced by artificial communications.

To the north of 45° north latitude on this continent, the length and severity of the winters will prevent the cultivation of wheat to any material extent. This opinion will appear remarkable in Great Britain, where it is considered that the culture of wheat is successfully extended to north latitude 55°. But that island has an open ocean to the north and west, and the North Sea to the east; whereas the American continent towards the northwest is unbroken to the Polar Sea, and to the north and northeast is indented with immense bays, covered with ice for nine months in the year.

To the west of longitude 15° west of Washington City commence those extensive prairies, extending to the Rocky Mountains, on which it is not likely the cultivation of wheat will be extended, nor any permanent settlement made, except along some of the water courses, for years to come. The want of wood and water on those plains will stop the advance of civilization in that direction, and leave them to the Indian and buffalo. How far it will be practicable to cover them with horses, cattle, and sheep, controlled by man, as on the steppes of the Banda Oriental, remains to be ascertained by experiment.

The wheat section, comprising ten degrees of latitude and twenty of longitude, embraces about one-half the surface of the States, exclusive of Texas; or one-fourth of that of the States and Territories; but within this section there is abundance of untenanted land, of the finest quality, awaiting the invasion of the cultivator; nor can that be long delayed, for the wants of a population constantly increasing, both within and without this district, and not regarding foreign countries, demand a rapid increase in the growth of wheat. If our estimate be correct, that the United States and Territories will number 22 millions of inhabitants in 1850, the additional quantity to be raised in that year over 1840, to supply an increase of 5 millions consumers at home, and leave seed, &c., must be about 22 millions bushels, equal to the whole crop raised in 1800. To bring the cultivation up to this point, it becomes necessary that for ten years, 130,000 acres of new land per annum, should be put under wheat culture alone, and three times that quantity under culture in corn, rye, oats, or in pasturage. To accomplish this, will require that the labour of full one-third of the whole increase in population be directed to agricultural pursuits in this district.

Mr. Childs estimates the consumption of wheat at the average of 3½ bushels per head in the New England States; 4$\frac{1}{12}$ bushels per head in the wheat district, and 2 bushels per head in the southern, or cotton and sugar district. These very low estimates will appear remarkable in England, where the consumption is estimated at 6 to 8 bushels per head. It is easy, however, to account for this difference, which arises from the more general consumption in this country of Indian corn, rye, and buckwheat, for culinary purposes. In the Eastern States, Indian corn and rye are generally used, and in many parts, more removed from the sea-coast, wheat bread is almost unknown. In the Middle and Western States, with the agricultural population in particular, more than half the bread is made of Indian meal and rye meal or flour; and buckwheat is also extensively used. In the Southern and Southwestern States, Indian corn becomes the leading article, and in some, rice is an important auxiliary; but to the coloured population (about one-half in those States) wheat is generally unknown. This will account for the very low estimate of two bushels per head, which we have given for the consumption of wheat in the Southern District. Throughout every part of the United States, Indian corn is raised. It is used both green and ripe—is easily prepared for food, and fully as nutricious as wheat. Its usual cost in the interiour, per bushel, is from one-third to one-half that of wheat, and for human nutriment, one bushel of Indian corn is perhaps equal to 1¾ bushels barley, or 3 bushels oats. It is not, therefore, surprising that the use of this invaluable grain should be so general, and that of oats and barley unknown—but for food of animals and the brewery.

The following estimates may be nearly correct, of the relative proportions of grain, &c., consumed for food:

In GREAT BRITAIN,	Wheat,	6
	Barley,	1
	Oats,	2
	Peas, rye, and beans,	1
		——10

In the United States—			
Eastern District,	Wheat,	3½	
	Indian corn,	5	
	Rye,	1½	
			10
Wheat District,	Wheat,	4 1/12	
	Indian corn,	4	
	Rye,	1	
	Buckwheat, &c.,	11/12	10
Southern District,	Wheat,	2	
	Indian corn,	7	
	Rice, &c.,	1	
			10
In France,	Wheat,	8	
	Other grain,	2	
			10
In Ireland,	Grain, all kinds,	5	
	And potatoes, equal to	5	
			10

It is generally admitted, and no doubt correctly, that the proportion of animal food consumed in the United States and England, is greater than in France; but we doubt much if there is any material variation in the quantity of *bread* and *grain* per head used in either country, but France exceeds in the use of common culinary vegetables, as Ireland does in potatoes.

The following is Mr. Childs's estimate of the disposition of the wheat crop of 1840. In this estimate it will be observed that North Carolina is included in the Southern, or cotton-growing section, and the estimated crop of 1840 is slightly reduced from the amount of the crop of 1839, as ascertained by the census.

	Eastern District, or New England.	Wheat-growing District.	Southern District.
Population in 1840,	2,234,822	11,317,666	3,810,078
	Bushels.	Bushels.	Bushels.
Estimated crop in 1840,	2,000,000	73,000,000	5,000,000
Used for seed, starch, &c.,	160,000	7,190,000	400,000
Consumed for human food,	7,750,000	46,200,000	7,000,000
Exported from Wheat District to other sections,		8,310,000	
Imported from Wheat Section,	5,910,000	..	2,400,000
Exported to foreign countries,		11,300,000	..
Annual consumption of wheat per head,	3½	4.1-12	2

COMPARATIVE ESTIMATE OF THE WHEAT CROP OF THE UNITED STATES AT DIFFERENT PERIODS.

Estimate of the Crop of Wheat in the United States at each period of ten years, with the proportion Exported;

Years.	Wheat Crop.	Per cent. Exported.	Population.
1790,	17,000,000 bushels.	28	3,929,328
1800,	22,000,000 "	15	5,309,758
1810,	30,000,000 "	14½	7,239,903
1820,	38,000,000 "	15½	9,638,166
1830,	50,000,000 "	12⅝	12,866,020
1840,	80,000,000 "	14	17,068,666*

* Including 6,100 in United States Navy.

Years.	Home Consumption.	Flour and Wheat Exported to Foreign Countries.	Value of the Wheat Crop at market, exclusive of seed, &c.	Average Price per bushel in Philadelphia in each period of ten years.
1790, ...	12,250,000 bushels.	4,750,000 bushels.	$18,540,000	$1.20*
1800, ...	13,700,000 "	3,300,000 "	39,800,000	1.62
1810, ...	25,680,000 "	4,320,000 "	52,680,000	1.58
1820, ...	32,100,000 "	5,900,000 "	36,100,000	1.85
1830, ...	43,925,000 "	6,175,000 "	45,200,000	1.05
1840, ...	68,750,000 "	11,300,000 "	72,250,000	1.29

* This price, $1.20, is the average for the year 1790—the succeeding prices are averages for 10 years.

Comparative increase of Population in the United States, and in the principal cities, with the estimated quantity of Land under cultivation in Wheat.

Years.	Population of the United States.	Population of * Atlantic cities.	Population of † Inland Cities.	Acres of Land under cultivation in wheat.
1790,............	3,929,328	130,051	3,500	1,000,000
1800,............	5,309,758	210,539	9,500	1,300,000
1810,............	7,239,903	314,795	25,700	1,750,000
1820,............	9,638,166	400,023	33,000	2,600,000
1830,............	12,866,020	689,434	82,344	3,000,000
1840,............	17,068,666	871,621	169,239	4,000,000

* Boston, New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Charleston, and New Orleans.
† Albany, Buffalo, Cleveland, Detroit, Pittsburgh, Cincinnati, Louisville, and St. Louis.

Mr. Childs is of opinion that the State of New York has not since the year 1838 produced on an average any surplus of wheat. He has paid great attention to the subject of the flour and wheat trade, and expressed this doubt respecting the State of New York in his "Commercial List," in March, 1838, and his opinion was confirmed by the census of 1840, which gave the crop of New York at 11,853,507 bushels, and the consumption of the State, including that used for seed, starch, &c., was estimated for 1840 at 11,512,514 bushels; leaving a surplus of only 340,993 bushels. "Now the crop of 1839, in New York, no doubt exceeded the average of the three crops preceding, 15 per cent., and that of 1841 full 30 per cent. This result will appear extraordinary to those who have not fully considered the subject, but it may be reconciled by a view of the flour trade of New York. Suppose we debit this State with all the wheat and flour brought into it from the lake country, from New Orleans, and all the Atlantic States south of New York; and then give the State credit for all the flour and wheat exported to foreign or domestic ports, continuing the account for five years, so as to have a fair average, what would be the balance in favour of New York production?

"The population of Pennsylvania has not increased so rapidly as that of New York, and although her surplus of wheat is not perhaps so great as it was 20 or even 30 years since, it is still very considerable; but as little good land now remains unbroken in Eastern Pennsylvania, and labour is fast seeking mining and manufacturing employments, this surplus will gradually diminish. In all the old wheat districts in the States of Delaware, Maryland, and Virginia, the land is so completely exhausted by continued cropping, that it must be abandoned for years, until restored to vigour by the recuperative powers of nature, or transferred to another population, better qualified to restore it by art and industry. In the upper sections of those States, particularly in the western parts of Virginia and Maryland, a different agricultural system prevails, and there the cultivation of wheat is still on the advance.

"If we make a natural line of the Mississippi to the confluence of the Ohio, and up this river to Pittsburgh, and thence draw an imaginary line north to Lake Erie, and continue it round the Northern and Eastern frontiers of the United States, it will be found that, *at this time*, the wheat raised in all this section of the United States is about equal to what is consumed in it; and that the whole *surplus* shipped from the United States to foreign countries, including Canada, is in fact produced in the States and Territories north and west of the Ohio River. We have stated the whole export in 1840, to September 30th, at 11,208,365 bushels, and the wheat and flour of the crop of 1839, which left those States, &c., for Canada, or came to the Atlantic cities, by various outlets—the Ohio and Mississippi rivers, the canals and railroads of Maryland, Pennsylvania, and New York—were about equal to this quantity. The estimate may, however, be made in another way. The States and Territories beyond the Ohio river presented an aggregate population in 1840 of about three millions; the quantity of wheat raised in 1839, was 26 millions of bushels, and allowing 12 millions for consumption, at four bushels per head, and two and a half millions for seed, starch, &c., and we have a surplus left for export from that section of 11,500,000 bushels. Now, it is a striking fact, that this surplus, in short the whole disposable surplus of the United States, is furnished by that section of our country the most remote from our Atlantic seaports, and with the aid of all the natural or artificial communications existing, it cannot reach those ports, from the places of shipment, much less from the farmer's door, at a charge per bushel under 45 or 50 cents, freight, insurance, commission, and waste included. From Cleveland to New York the charge is about 37½ cents; from Pittsburgh to Philadelphia about 40 cents; and these are the nearest and most convenient shipping points on the Atlantic; (the railroad communication from Baltimore not yet having been extended across the Allegany mountains.) What, then, does the farmer in those States get for his wheat, when the price in our Atlantic cities is one dollar per bushel? Is it not a matter of serious consideration, whether, with our rapidly increasing population, the consumption of wheat has not already approached too close to its production?—not leaving a sufficient margin to meet the contingency of a bad crop, which might make it necessary to import from Europe, and under circumstances not so favourable to obtain supplies as those which existed in 1837 and 1838.

"Although it must be apparent, from the views now given of the present state of the growth and consumption of wheat in the United States, that there is no inducement to seek new markets for that grain, we are still interested in any measures that will be likely to give more regularity to the demand for old markets, and greater steadiness to our prices."

The cultivators of wheat in the United States are protected by a duty on imported wheat of twenty-five cents per bushel, and on wheat flour of seventy cents per 112 lbs. Previous to the tariff of 1824 wheat was subject to an ad valorem duty, but by that tariff a specific duty of twenty-five cents per bushel was laid on wheat, and fifty cents per cwt. on flour. The same duty was continued on wheat by subsequent tariffs, until reduced by the Compromise tariff; and in 1842 the same rate was again fixed, and the duty on flour raised to seventy cents. The effect of protection has doubtless been favourable to the American cultivator, as in the absence of duty wheat might be imported from Europe during seasons of abundant harvests and low prices on that side of the Atlantic, and the introduction of even limited quantities into our seaports, from the Baltic or the Black Sea, might operate to derange prices of both grain and flour in our markets.

With regard to the production of wheat per acre, as stated in one of the foregoing tables, Mr. Childs remarks: "Researches have been made during a period of many years, which have led to the construction of this table, and a conviction that its accuracy may be relied on for all general purposes. General Washington, after he had relinquished the sword for the ploughshare, made extensive inquiry through the agricultural districts of this country to ascertain the acreable yield of wheat, and the result, it is understood, gave about 17 bushels per acre, as the product of a fair average crop; nor can we discern any ground to change that result at the present day, for, if from the new lands of the West, and the well cultivated fields of New-York and Pennsylvania, a higher average than 17 bushels per acre is obtained, it is certain that in all the old wheat districts of Delaware, Maryland and Virginia, the average product would fall much lower, even in seasons esteemed favourable. The acreable product in England of a good crop, is rated at 24 bushels (or three quarters imperial measure,) but the wheat lands there are generally in a high state of cultivation, the wheat is longer in coming to maturity, and the head contains more grains than with us. The crop of wheat in the United States in 1839, the product of which was embraced in the census returns of 1840, was, from several circumstances, much beyond a common average. The depressed condition of the manufacturing interests in this country in 1837 and 1838, arising in part from over production at home, but still more extensively from over importations of goods from abroad, deprived of the usual means of maintenance a large population in New England; and the high prices of wheat during the same period, from the deficiency in the crops of 1836 and 1837, naturally directed to agriculture those in pursuit of employment. The emigration from New England to Western New York, Ohio, Michigan, &c., was joined by a current of population from all parts of Europe, seeking new lands in the same direction. The result was, that an increased breadth of land was put under wheat culture in the fall of 1838, much greater than usual; and the season of 1839 proving highly favourable, the crop of that year was uncommonly productive. Not only was the quality of the wheat good, but the acreable product throughout the entire country was full two bushels beyond the usual average. The aggregate product of that crop, as made up from the returns received at the State Department at Washington, was about eighty-three millions of bushels, but in the foregoing table an aggregate crop for 1840 is put down at eighty millions of bushels. The increased production of 1839 brought the price of wheat down to an average of $1 per bushel; and the export of flour and wheat for the fiscal year ending September 30, 1840, was greater than during any former year, but still it did not exceed the average per centage of each crop exported since the year 1800, and fell far short of the estimates of some 'writers,' who, professing extensive knowledge of this subject, asserted that there would be a surplus of ten millions barrels of flour for export to foreign markets.

"It is evident from the experience of the last fifty years, that the increase in the cultivation of wheat, merely extends in proportion to the wants of our home population, not giving any increase in the surplus for export, unless in years of over production, or when the home consumption is lessened by high prices arising from unusual demands for other countries."

The following table, comparing the quantity of flour inspected and received at our principal shipping ports, with the official quantity exported to foreign countries, shows the very great increase in home consumption of inspected flour, principally within the New England States, or the cities in the Middle and Southern States:

Amount of Wheat Flour inspected in and Exported from the United States for 20 years, ending September 30, 1840*—with the quantity remaining for consumption in each year:*

Years.	Inspected.	Exported.	Left for Consumption.
1821,......................	1,707,350 barrels.	1,046,119 barrels.	661,231
1822,......................	1,599,973 "	827,865 "	772,108
1823,......................	1,557,724 "	756,702 "	801,022
1824,......................	1,714,410 "	996,792 "	717,168
1825,......................	1,882,611 "	813,906 "	1,068,705
1826,......................	2,031,558 "	857,820 "	1,173,738
1827,......................	2,061,459 "	865,491 "	1,195,968
1828,......................	2,245,257 "	860,809 "	1,364,448
1829,......................	2,255,132 "	837,385 "	1,417,747
1830,......................	2,851,876 "	1,225,881 "	1,625,995
1831,......................	2,851,076 "	1,806,529 "	1,044,547
1832,......................	2,615,050 "	864,919 "	1,750,131
1833,......................	2,815,566 "	955,768 "	1,859,798
1834,......................	2,945,814 "	835,352 "	2,110,462
1835,......................	2,856,448 "	779,396 "	2,077,052
1836,......................	2,512,468 "	505,130 "	2,007,338
1837,......................	2,087,494 "	318,719 "	1,768,775
1838,......................	2,117,718 "	448,161 "	1,669,557
1839,......................	3,228,385 "	923,151 "	2,305,234
1840,......................	4,505,525 "	1,897,501 "	2,708,024

The principal flour marts in the United States on the navigable waters of the Atlantic, at which the inspections of flour in the above table were made, are New York, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Alexandria, Georgetown, Richmond, Pittsburgh, Fredericksburgh, New Orleans, and for a few of the years, Falmouth and Albany. These returns of inspections, although incomplete, are important, as they show the great increase in the quantity of flour coming to market, a demand for which has been sustained by home consumption, and not by an increased export to foreign countries. The great increase in the supply of flour brought to market is at ports east of the Potomac, as no material change is apparent in the average inspections of the ports of Virginia for some years.

The following gives a comparative view of the quantity of flour annually inspected at the principal marts, at three different periods, ten years apart:

		1820.	1830.	1840.
New York,	(barrels)	267,365	870,585	1,863,313
Philadelphia,	"	400,814	473,876	616,207
Baltimore,	"	577,058	597,804	779,918
Alexandria,	"	233,605	187,432	51,089
Georgetown,	"	107,372	139,713	*209,548
Richmond,	"	152,924	251,024	229,965
Petersburgh,	"	56,593	72,000	56,871
Fredericksburgh,	"	81,478	79,336	42,921
New Orleans,	"	(no returns.)	133,790	496,194

* Inspected in 1839.

EXPORT OF WHEAT AND FLOUR FROM THE UNITED STATES TO FOREIGN COUNTRIES.

The following summary shows the quantity of wheat and flour exported from the United States to foreign countries, for two different periods, namely, for the 25 years previous to and including the last war with Great Britain, 1790 to 1814, and the 26 years following the peace of 1815—viz, from 1815 to 1840 inclusive:

Years.	Wheat Exported.		Flour Exported.	
1790 to 1814, (25 years,)	9,955,374	bushels.	21,219,309	barrels.
Annual average,	398,215	"	848,772	"
1815 to 1840, (26 years,)	3,140,752	"	24,591,332	"
Annual average,	120,798	"	945,820	"

The destination of wheat flour exported from the United States, for two periods, namely, from 1800 to 1814 inclusive; and from 1815 to 1840 inclusive, was as follows:

	For 15 years—1800 to 1814.		For 26 years—1815 to 1840.	
British North America,	352,517	barrels.	2,873,348	barrels.
West Indies,	5,977,716	"	10,016,563	"
South America,	..		5,307,607	"
Great Britain and Ireland,	1,881,296	"	4,103,205	"
France,	36,713	"	347,296	"
Spain and Portugal,	4,154,131	"	567,491	"
Other parts of Europe,	147,508	"	642,028	"
Asia,	..		167,431	"
Africa,	..		82,087	"
Uncertain,	1,094,957	"	206,350	"

The large exports to Spain and Portugal during the first period were principally owing to the wars in the Peninsula. The supply of the allied British and Spanish armies created a great demand for American flour, which caused shipments to be made from the United States from 1810 to 1813, and sustained high prices in this country. A new market has been created in South America, since that part of the continent has become independent of Spain and Portugal. The annual average shipments to the West Indies continue about the same as they were previous to the war, viz, nearly 400,000 barrels—while to Great Britain and Ireland, the annual average quantity shipped was 125,419 barrels previous to 1815, and 157,815 barrels since the peace. The most important increase in the export of flour is to the British North American colonies. This has arisen from the circumstance that wheat of colonial growth is admitted into England at a low rate of duty, and the large quantity shipped from

Canada to Great Britain has been replaced by imports of wheat and flour from the States bordering on the Lakes. The effect of this discriminating duty in favour of Canada we shall notice presently.

To give a further view of our export trade in wheat and flour, we here insert a table from the Hon. Mr. Hudson's very able speech in Congress, delivered in the House of Representatives on the 26th of February, 1846:

Table of Exports of Wheat and Flour, in bushels, to some of the principal markets, and also the total amount of Exports of Wheat to all foreign countries, for fourteen consecutive years:

Years.	Great Britain.	British N. A. Colonies.	Cuba.	Brazil.	All foreign countries.
1831,................	4,690,873	766,460	489,995	994,350	9,441,090
1832,................	534,390	698,977	491,440	516,445	4,407,899
1833,................	108,535	872,056	695,985	1,297,680	4,811,061
1834,................	97,435	698,122	514,185	763,015	4,213,708
1835,................	26,880	372,025	467,555	807,300	3,944,742
1836,................	805	213,882	461,950	592,350	2,529,062
1837,................	....	116,580	277,685	302,400	1,610,898
1838, ...	41,475	154,031	398,405	626,375	2,247,096
1839,................	843,943	819,148	452,295	886,685	4,712,080
1840,................	3,635,998	3,228,384	349,883	989,115	11,198,365
1841,................	1,145,574	2,579,419	346,935	1,428,487	8,447,670
1842,................	1,167,810	2,600,734	238,309	946,185	7,237,968
1843,................	71,070	1,245,452	147,185	962,270	4,519,055
1844,................	858,718	2,069,704	174,375	1,440,905	7,751,587
Average,................	944,536	1,166,048	386,155	896,711	5,505,162

Table of Exports and Imports of Wheat and Flour, in bushels, together with the value of the same, from 1831 *to* 1844 *inclusive:*

	EXPORTS.		IMPORTS.		EXCESS.	
Years.	Bushels.	Value.	Bushels.	Value.	Bushels.	
1831,.....	9,441,090	$10,461,715	633	$699	9,440,457	Exports.
1832,.....	4,407,899	4,974,123	1,191	1,180	4,406,708	
1833,.....	4,811,061	5,642,602	1,697	1,716	4,809,364	
1834,.....	4,213,708	4,560,379	1,307	1,295	4,212,401	
1835,.....	3,944,742	4,446,182	311,805	268,623	3,632,937	
1836,.....	2,529,062	3,574,561	650,629	565,500	1,878,433	
1837,.....	1,610,898	3,014,415	4,000,000	4,276,976	2,389,102	Imports.
1838,.....	2,247,096	3,617,724	927,180	940,638	1,319,916	Exports.
1839,.....	4,712,080	7,069,361	41,725	57,747	4,670,355	
1840,.....	11,198,365	11,779,098	1,436	1,069	11,196,929	
1841,.....	8,447,670	8,582,527	652	900	8,447,018	
1842,.....	7,237,968	8,292,308	4,153	3,796	7,233,815	
1843,.....	4,519,055	4,027,182	12,121	8,542	4,506,934	
1844,.....	7,751,587	7,233,898	1,611	1,664	7,749,501	
Average,.	5,505,162	$6,233,533	425,442	$437,897	5,085,390 over imports.	

COMPARATIVE VIEW OF PRICES OF WHEAT AND FLOUR IN THE UNITED STATES.

By a table made up for the Philadelphia Commercial List, by an old established house at Brandywine, Delaware, we have a monthly list of prices paid for wheat, at the Brandywine mills, from 1785 to 1841, inclusive. These mills are situated about thirty miles south of Philadelphia, and the prices paid at the very regular market which they have afforded, may, for all general purposes, be taken as the Philadelphia prices, below which they do not fall on an average over 3 cents per bushel. The annual average of these prices paid for wheat, from 1785 to 1814 inclusive, was $1 54½ cents per bushel. The lowest annual average during this term of years was in 1788, when the average price paid for the year was 93 cents; and the highest average was in 1796, namely, $2 48. In the month of March of that year $3 per bushel was paid for wheat.

The following were the annual average prices paid at the same mills from 1815 to 1841:

1815,......	$1.75	1824,......	$1.11	1833,......	$1.12
1816,......	2.00	1825,......	1.00	1834,......	1.02
1817,......	2.40	1826,......	92	1835,......	1.21
1818,......	2.00	1827,......	1.00	1836,......	1.60
1819,......	1.30	1828,......	1.10	1837,......	1.78
1820,......	92	1829,......	1.28	1838,......	1.60
1821,......	93	1830,......	96	1839,......	1.37
1822,......	1.33	1831,......	1.12	1840,......	1.00
1823,......	1.37	1832,......	1.12	1841,......	1.14

The average of these prices since and including 1815, is $1.31¼ cents per bushel.

The prices of wheat in the New York market for the last ten years, on the 1st of April and the 1st of October, have been as follows:

Year.	April.	October.	Average.	Year.	April.	October.	Average.
1836,.....	$1.37½	$1.87½	$1.62½	1841,.....	$ 95	$1.40	$1.17½
1837,.....	1.83	1.60	1.71½	1842,.....	1.25	90	1.07½
1838,.....	1.60	1.90	1.75	1843,.....	92	92	92
1839,.....	1.75	1.20	1.47½	1844,.....	1.04	90	97
1840,.....	1.10	1.00	1.05	1845,.....	1.00	92	96

Average for 10 years,..$1.27

The present prices, (March, 1846,) in various Atlantic markets, are as follows:

New York,..............	$1.14	Baltimore,..............	$1.10
Philadelphia,...........	1.10	Richmond,...............	1.05

Mr. Hudson, before quoted, gives the average prices of wheat at the seaports of the United States, for a series of years, as follows:

In 1830,.......	$1.15	In 1835,.......	$1.19	In 1840,......	$1.10
1831,.......	1.18	1836,.......	1.44	1841, ...	1.03
1832,.......	1.15	1837,.......	1.83	1842,......	1.16
1833,.......	1.13	1838,.......	1.54	1843,......	1.00
1834,.......	1.08	1839,.......	1.42		

The general average of the above prices is $1 25 per bushel.

Annual average Prices of Wheat at Baltimore:

Year.	Price.	Year.	Price.
1832,.................	$1.13	1839,.................	$1.38
1833,.................	1.15	1840,.................	1.00
1834,.................	1.02	1841,.................	1.12
1835,.................	1.26	1842,.................	1.05
1836,*................	1.72	1843,.................	92
1837,*................	1.77	1844,.................	91
1838,*................	1.66	Average for 13 years, $1.24.	

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* In consequence of the partial failure of the wheat crops of 1836 and 1837, the prices advanced, and large quantities were imported from foreign countries. There were received into the port of Baltimore 1,671,572 bushels of wheat during these three years.

Average Prices of Flour per barrel of 196 *lbs. in the Philadelphia Market, from* 1815 *to* 1841 *inclusive:*

1815,	$9.80	1824,	$5.11	1833,	$5.20
1816,	11.72	1825,	4.70	1834,	5.88
1817,	9.97	1826,	5.27	1835,	8.01
1818,	6.90	1827,	5.60	1836,	11.00
1819,	4.72	1828,	6.32	1837,	9.53
1820,	4.78	1829,	4.95	1838,	7.73
1821,	6.59	1830,	5.77	1839,	7.22
1822,	6.84	1831,	5.73	1840,	5.07
1823,	5.59	1832,	5.72	1841,	5.40

Annual average for 27 years, $6 71 per barrel.

Average Prices of Genesee Flour in the New York Market for each year, from 1834 *to* 1840:

1834,	$5.25	1837,	$9 80	1839,	$7.09
1835,	6.29	1838,	7.83	1840,	5,25
1836,	8.25				

The prices on the 1st of April and 1st of October since 1840, have been as follows:

	April.	October.
1841,	$4.87½	$6.37½
1842,	6.37½	4.50
1843,	5.00	4.50
1844,	4.92	4.40
1845,	4.75	4.62

The cost of transportation from the wheat district of the interiour to the Atlantic ports, or from the lakes to New York and Philadelphia, we have already stated, is calculated by Mr. Childs as 37½ to 40 cents per bushel on wheat. Mr. Leavitt makes the following statement, in his memorial to Congress, in 1842:

Freight to New York:

	Flour per barrel.	Wheat per bushel.
From Chicago—1,450 miles,	$1.37½	34 cents.
From Detroit,	1.17½	28 "
From Buffalo,	97½	23 "

These prices are probably near the mark for freight and canal tolls at the present time. Some persons calculate on a reduction in prices of transportation when railroads are completed to the Western States, but the present rates charged on the line of railroads from Buffalo to Albany, (325 miles,) being $1 25 per barrel for flour, do not warrant this calculation.* We are aware that the line of railroads referred to has some disadvantages; but we think we must look to an enlargement of the Erie canal for any material reduction in the cost of transportation from the West.

EFFECT OF THE BRITISH CORN LAWS ON THE WHEAT AND FLOUR TRADE OF THE UNITED STATES.

We find by the official averages in Great Britain, for seven years, ending on Christmas, in the years 1835 to 1844 inclusive, as prepared for the tithe commissioners, that the septennial price of wheat per imperial bushel of 60 pounds averaged 7s. sterling, or $1 68. Now it appears that the average price at the Atlantic ports of the United States has been $1 25 per pushel; and it is understood that the cost of freight, insurance, commission, and other charges on wheat from New York sold in Liverpool, is at least 33 cents per bushel, making the cost of American wheat laid down and sold in Liverpool, $1 58 cents. Thus, if the corn laws had not been in existence, there only remains a margin of ten cents per bushel to remunerate the grain dealer for his trouble and risk, even supposing the impossibility that prices would have remained as high without duty as they have been under the corn laws. If a reduction of price, therefore, is to follow a repeal of the corn laws, as is of course the expectation and the object of those who advocate the repeal, it surely will not be contended that wheat can be shipped from the United States to England, and leave remunerating prices to the dealer and the American farmer.

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* The present rate charged on a barrel of flour, on the Baltimore and Ohio railroad, from Cumberland to Baltimore, (178 miles) is 60 cents.

But it is supposed by some, that if wheat will not pay for shipment to England, American Flour has been shipped and sold at a profit in British ports, and will be sent from this country in large quantities when the corn laws shall be repealed, as is now expected.

We find in Mr. Leavitt's memorial, before referred to, a copy of an actual account of sales of 500 barrels of American flour, in bond, at Liverpool, on American account, by Baring, Brothers & Co., dated April 27, 1840. The flour was sold at 28s. 6d., equal to $6 84, (the same price in bond as the last quotations from Liverpool, March, 1846.) The amount of sales was £709 6s., allowing £3 4s. for deficiency in weights; the charges for freight, commission, warehouse, and dock dues, &c., exclusive of insurance from sea risk, amounted to £164 9s. 8d., and the nett proceeds were £544 16s. 4d., equal to $2,615 12, estimating $4 80 to the pound sterling, which is about the average rate of exchange. Thus the charges on this flour were $1 61 per barrel, of which $1 was for freight, and the nett proceeds left to the American owner $5 23 per barrel, from which should be deducted the insurance and interest on the shipment; reducing the nett proceeds probably to five dollars per barrel. The average price in New York for 1840 was $5 25, and in January, 1840, when the flour referred to was probably shipped, the average was $6 37½. It will be observed that this flour was sold in bond; in other words, without paying the duty.

Should it be said, that we have proved too much, and that if the argument be sound we cannot send any grain to Great Britain, we reply in the language of Mr. Hudson: "Every practical man knows, that between two great commercial nations an article will be exported from one to the other, when the prices in the two countries seem to forbid. The wheat that we have sent to Great Britain is, to a certain extent, the result of accidental causes. A merchant is indebted abroad, and must send forth something to discharge his debt, and not being able to meet the demand in specie, he sends forward a quantity of flour.* Or, a vessel is going out without a full cargo, and will take grain for a mere trifle. Or, a speculator has a large amount of flour on hand, bought perhaps on credit, and is obliged to send it out at a sacrifice. Our grain goes to England mainly in the shape of flour, by which a saving of 10 or 15 per cent. over the export of wheat is realized. These are the causes, more than any thing else, which enables us to supply the English market to the small extent we now do. Ask our merchants who have had experience in this trade, and they will generally tell you that it is a precarious business, and one in which much more has been lost than made."

If the free trade doctrine were true, that the duty paid on an article imported is so much added to the price, then surely a repeal of the corn laws will not justify an expectation of a rise in price for American flour above the rate at which the same is now sold in bond; particularly when the English markets shall be crowded with bread-stuffs sent from producing countries to supply the operatives with "cheap bread."

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* We think it more probable that shipments are generally influenced by a speculative spirit, and a hope, seldom realized, of a rise in prices in England, sufficient to pay a profit. Many also desire to place funds in England for other operations.

Without admitting the doctrine as to the effect of the duty on price, we think the abundant supplies will reduce prices in the English market.

But how will a repeal of the British corn laws affect American interests? As those laws now stand, it is well known there is a discrimination in favour of wheat and flour inported from Canada into Great Britain, by which, while the duties are high on wheat and flour from foreign countries, on the same, the produce of Canada and other British colonies, the duty is merely nominal. Thus in 1844, the actual duty paid in England on wheat from the United States averaged 56 cents per bushel, and on flour $2 59 per barrel; and on wheat imported from Canada the average duty paid was 1s. per quarter or 3 cents per bushel, and 7d. or 14 cents per barrel on flour. This explains why we have sent so little wheat and flour to England direct, and why so much has been exported to Canada. It either takes the place of Canadian flour shipped to England, (the Canadians using our flour, while they send their own to England,) or it goes to Great Britain or the colonies, through Canada, as Canadian wheat or flour. In our direct trade we come in competition with the north of Europe; and the low price of labour enables them to undersell us in the English markets. But by the indirect trade through Canada we enjoy an advantage on wheat over that which we send direct to England from the United States, or over any sent from any other country, equal to 45 cts. a bushel, (after deducting 8 cents duty paid in Canada for the protection of the colonial farmer.) On flour, after paying a duty of 2s. per barrel in Canada, the advantage of the indirect trade was $1 95 per barrel in 1844. But repeal the corn laws of England, and we are deprived of this monopoly, which our wheat-growing region bordering on the Lakes now enjoys, and we are brought directly into competition with the great wheat-growing countries of the continent of Europe, where the agricultural labourers, according to McCulloch and Macgregor, (British writers,) can be hired at from 6 cents to 12 cents a day.

Our best, and in fact our principal trade in wheat and flour, with the mother country, has been through Canada. For the last seven years we have sent into Canada 12,586,892 bushels of wheat, (reducing the flour to wheat,) while our direct trade to England, at the same time, has amounted to only 7,764,588 bushels. Or, if we take the last three years, we have sent into Canada 6,325,607 bushels, and into England 2,097,598 bushels, being more than three times as much into Canada as into England.

Wheat and Flour (st[illegible]d in quarters of wheat) imported into Great Britain and Ireland from Canada, from 1841 *to* 1845 *inclusive, from British official statements:*

Years.			IMPORTED.		
1841,	228,723	quarters,	equal to	1,829,784	bushels.
1842,	179,922	"		1,439,376	"
1843,	112,563	"		900,504	"
1844,	226,598	"		1,812,784	"
1845,	229,241	"		1,833,928	"
Total,	977,047	"		7,816,376	"

On this subject we beg leave to quote from the pamphlet of our friend Doctor Bartlett, the able editor of the Albion, of this city, published in 1842, in the form of a letter to Lord Ashburton, then special Minister to the United States from Great Britain. Speaking on the subject of trade through the river St. Lawrence, and the operation of the British corn laws, the Doctor remarks as follows:

"It is often said that Great Britain should at once throw open her ports to foreign grain at low or nominal duties; and the advocates of the tariff in this country urge the imposition of high duties here, in retaliation for high duties in England. In some respects it might be advantageous to Great Britain to do so, but we are by no means sure that it would be so to the United States; for the moment a repeal of the duties on foreign grain generally took place, British capital and British agricultural skill would be transferred to different parts of Europe, to put waste lands into cultivation for the supply of the English market. There is no want of spare land on the continent, and that, too, of the best quality for wheat; and labour, that great item in a farmer's expenditure, is cheap and abundant. Prolific and abundant as are the wheat lands of Genesee, Michigan, &c., they could not, from the high price of human labour, compete with the continent of Europe, where the hire of a daily labourer is perhaps not over six pence sterling a day, and the voyage from thence to England not one-third of the length of the voyage from America. These two very superiour advantages of cheap labour and short voyages must, inevitably, give the preponderance to the continental produce in the English market, over the American, whenever the capabilities of the two are brought fairly into competition. Even as it is, when the foreign demand is so comparatively small and uncertain—when the system of agriculture is so imperfect and unscientific—and when there is so little inducement for the continental husbandmen to produce more than sufficient to supply the home demand—we find the prices of wheat in many parts of Europe to be *lower* than they are at New York. And how much more would this be the case if the stimulus of demand, and the invigorating influence of British skill and capital, were brought to bear upon such advantageous elements of production?

"The following tables will throw light on this point:

PRICES OF WHEAT ON THE CONTINENT OF EUROPE.

Average Prices of Wheat in the principal Grain Markets of Europe, in the year 1840; *ascertained by the British Consuls at the ports named:*

	Price per quarter. s.	d.	Per bushel.	Freight per bushel to England.
St. Petersburgh,	39	1	$1.17	15 cents.
Riga,	49	7	1.49	14 "
Liebau,	43	7	1.31	15 "
Odessa, (Black Sea,)	26	6	80	30 "
Dantzic,	36	0	1.08	12 "
Stockholm,	30	0	90	13 "
Konigsberg,	40	0	1.20	15 "
Stettin,	40	0	1.20	13 "
Memel,	35	0	1.05	13 "
Elsinore,	30	0	90	12 "
Hamburgh,	35	0	1.05	12 "
Rotterdam,	55	0	1.65	07 "
Antwerp,	56	5	1.69	07 "
Palermo, (Sicily,)	38	0	1.14	25 "

"All of the above ports, it will be observed, are in the North of Europe, except Odessa and Palermo. Some of the prices given above are the average for a series of years; others are the lowest rates in a single year. The average of the above prices is 40s. 6d. per quarter, or $1 21½ per bushel, and the average freight to England is about 15 cents per bushel. This would make the actual average cost, delivered in England, 45s. 4d. per quarter, or $1 36½ per bushel, without duties. It appears that grain is cheaper in Russia than in any other part of Europe. The prices in 1835, in the government of Tamboff, were, for wheat, 13s. 6d. to 14s. 1d. per quarter, (40½ to 42 cents per bushel;) rye, 7s. 1d. to 7s. 7½d. per quarter, (22 cents per bushel;) oats, 4s. 9½d. to 5s. 5½d. per quarter, (14 to 16 cents per bushel.) The expenses to St. Petersburgh were about 50 per cent. on wheat, and above 100 per cent. on rye and oats.

"The average price of wheat in France in the year 1836 was 39s. per quarter, or $1 17 per bushel, and the average of prices from 1819 to 1836 was 40s. 1d. per quarter, or $1 20 per bushel of 60 lbs. The average price in England in 1836 was 48s. 6d. per quarter, or $1 45½ per bushel; in 1841, 64s. 6d. or $1 93½ per bushel.

"The following are recent quotations of prices of wheat and flour in the United States and Canada:

			Wheat per bushel.	Flour per bbl., 196 lbs.
United States,	New York,	April 26, 1842.	$1.25	$6.00
	Philadelphia,	" 23, "	1.20	5.75
	Baltimore,	" 23, "	1.18	5.62½
	Fredericksburgh,	" 18, "	1.10	5.50
	Richmond,	" 18, "	1.10	5.75
	Detroit,	" 19, "	87½	4.37½
Canada,......	Montreal,	" 29, "	1.30	7.00
	Toronto,	" 23, "	1.00	5.00

"The average prices of freight to England from the above ports may be estimated at 20 cents per bushel for wheat, and 60 to 75 cents per barrel for flour.

"I am fully aware that these statements will take many persons by surprise, but their truth, I aver, will stand the test of any investigation.

"But these objections melt away if the British duties remain as they are, and we avail ourselves of the Canada route for transmitting the article to England."

PRODUCTION AND CONSUMPTION OF WHEAT IN GREAT BRITAIN.

The quantity of wheat produced on the island of Great Britain is estimated by McCulloch and other writers at about thirteen millions of quarters, equal to 104 millions of bushels. The produce of Ireland may be estimated at about one million quarters of wheat, or eight millions of bushels, of which over one-half was annually sent to Great Britain previous to 1838; since that period the quantity shipped to England from Ireland has diminished.

The demand in Great Britain is now estimated to average about two millions of quarters annually, to be obtained from foreign countries.

On this branch of the subject we again quote from the speech of the Hon. Mr. Hudson.

"But suppose that her demand increases, where will she obtain her supply? Where has she obtained it in years past? In 1841, '42, and '43, when she made her largest importations, averaging 18,300,000 bushels, or about 54,000,000 for the three years, her supply was obtained from the following nations, in the following proportion:

Importation of Wheat into Great Britain from the principal Wheat Countries for 1841, 1842, and 1843, in bushels, together with the sum total from each country:

Countries.	1841.	1842.	1843.	Total.
Russia,	498,205	1,824,688	269,368	2,592,261
Denmark,	1,915,279	617,656	565,248	3,098,183
Prussia,	7,134,400	5,938,065	5,311,000	18,383,465
Germany,	5,295,674	1,626,172	1,027,224	7,949,070
Holland,	815,964	73,679	6,864	896,507
France,	1,643,932	4,216,100	29,248	5,889,280
Italy and Island,	901,600	4,878,597	24,840	5,805,037
North American Colonies,	2,333,354	3,729,690	2,790,504	6,853,548
United States,	1,107,840	1,195,873	749,601	3,053,278
All other countries,	866,859	1,816,340	272,407	2,955,606

"Here, sir, we have a view of the demand and supply of the English market for three successsive years. And does it appear that that market is to be regarded as ours? And is the United States the only country on which Great Britain is to depend for her bread-stuffs? A glance at this table will show at once that our supply, when compared with that of the continent, dwindles almost to insignificance. Russia suppli[illegible]early as much as the United States; Denmark a trifle more; Prussia m[illegible] than six times as much; Germany and Holland nearly three times as much; France and Italy each nearly twice as much; and the British North American colonies more than twice as much as this boasted granary of the world. To show the relative importance of our trade to Great Britain, it is barely necessary to say, that of every hundred bushels sent to the English market we supply only five.

"We have seen that the importations of wheat into Great Britain have been exceedingly fluctuating, ranging from 228,000 to 23,917,000 bushels. A fair estimate of the English demand, for a term of years to come, may, I think, be put down at 15,000,000 bushels annually. And where will she obtain her supply? From the United States? Why have they not supplied that market in years past? Will it be said that the corn laws have operated against us? But those laws have been general in their operation. Why have not these restrictions operated against the nations on the continent? The thirty-three millions of bushels brought from the north, during the three years, and the twelve millions from the south of Europe, have been subjected to the same duty as the three millions from the United States. And if they can supply more than nine-tenths of the wheat under the present law, they can do the same under a less restricted dispensation, or a system of perfect free trade.

"I say, sir, for years to come we may fairly estimate the demand in Great Britain at 15,000,000 of bushels annually; and, judging from the past, we may say that the United States will supply 1,000,000, and the continent the other 14,000,000. And there can be no doubt but that the continent can furnish that supply, and even more, if it were required. In 1840 the British Government called upon their consuls, at some of the principal marts of the corn trade, to inform them what amount of grain could be sent to the English market in case the English duty were reduced to a nominal sum. The substance of their replies will be seen in the following table, submitted, with their report to Parliament, in 1841:

St. Petersburgh,	1,540,000	bushels.
Liebau,	240,000	"
Warsaw,	2,400,000	"
Odessa,	1,200,000	"
Stockholm,	8,000	"
Dantzic,	2,520,000	"
Konigsberg,	520,000	"
Stettin,	2,000,000	"
Memel,	47,712	"
Hamburgh,	4,304,000	"
Elsinore,	1,400,000	"
Palermo,	1,600,000	"
	17,779,712	bushels.

"From these twelve ports it appears that a supply of 17,779,700 bushels of wheat could be obtained annually; and it further appears, that 7,298,000 bushels of rye, 6,820,500 bushels of barley, and 6,445,700 bushels of oats, could be supplied. In this list is not included Riga, Rotterdam, Antwerp, and several other important ports for the corn trade. In answer to the inquiry, whether the quantity could be increased if there were a steady demand in Great Britain, the consul at St. Petersburgh says: 'There are *extensive tracts* of land in the provinces that now supply St. P[illegible]burgh, which would *no doubt* be brought into cultivation were a steady and certain market for wheat opened in this place. In years of abundance the quantity which could be exported would be three times as great as is stated in the table.' From Riga the consul writes: 'When the foreign demand is very urgent, the distant provinces of Smolensk, Kaluga, and Orel, send supplies to Riga. The principal wheat districts are too remote from the ports to enable the farmers to get their crops to the market sufficiently early for exportation the same year; and, therefore, they cannot profit so decidedly by the occurrence of a bad harvest in England as those in the neighbourhood of some other of the Baltic ports.' From Memel the reply is: 'In four or five years about a fourth more of grain will be cultivated.' From Warsaw the answer is, 'that the quantity of wheat grown in Poland has increased considerably for the last six years, and the production might no doubt be further gradually increased if there were a steady demand for foreign corn in England.' The consul from Elsinore reports as follows: 'In case of a steady and regular demand in England for foreign corn, the quantity produced in Denmark would, without difficulty, and in a short space of time, be *materially increased.*'

"Thus it appears that the nations upon the Baltic can, in addition to the 17 or 18 millions of bushels of wheat set down in the table, contribute a still further supply. One of the great difficulties under which the north of Europe has laboured, is the want of communication with the Baltic. The consuls, in their statements, frequently allude to the fact that large sections of wheat lands in the interiour are neglected, for the want of cheap and ready communication with the seaports. But this difficulty is fast being removed. The numerous plans for railroads, which have been adopted in Russia, Germany, and all the northern and interiour States, will bring large quantities of wheat lands into cultivation, and so enable them to supply a still larger amount of grain, should the English market require it.

"It also appears, by returns made to Parliament, that the English East India possessions supply a portion of her bread-stuffs. In 1842 they sent to England 170,000 bushels of wheat, and, as the business intercourse increases, the supplies will increase.

"From this glance at the subject, it appears that the whole demand of the English market could be supplied, and more than supplied, from the Eastern continent. If the United States should withhold every bushel, there would, in ordinary cases, be no lack of grain for the English market. But we are told that the repeal of the English corn laws would increase the consumption, and hence a larger quantity would be required in that market. As a general rule a reduction of price will increase the consumption of an article, and this principle will apply to the subject before us, as well as to any other. But still there are causes which will, in my estimation, tend to counteract this effect. If the price of wheat is reduced in Great Britain, as her dependence is mainly upon her own crops, it will tend to reduce the price of labour, and hence diminish the ability of the labouring classes to purchase. This may operate to the full amount of the reduction, and so prevent any increased consumption. Any thing which promotes general prosperity will increase the ability of the people to purchase, and whatever paralyzes business necessarily produces a diminished consumption. The price of wheat depends upon many causes other than the operation of enactments. In 1842 Sir Robert Peel adopted an important change in the corn laws of the kingdom, a change by which the duties were reduced at once about one-half. This law took effect in April, 1842, and yet, in the first entire year after this change had taken place, viz, in 1843, the import of wheat fell off more than one-half, the import of 1843 being only 9,540,000 bushels, while the average importation for the three years preceding this change of the law was 20,692,000 bushels. I do not suppose that this falling off in 1843 was produced by the reduction of duties, but this example clearly shows that the quantity of foreign grain consumed in Great Britain is controlled by laws more efficient than the corn laws. Judging from this experiment, we have no reason to believe that the opening of her ports would have any considerable effect upon the demand for foreign grain."

COMPARISON BETWEEN EUROPE AND AMERICA, AS TO THE PRODUCTION OF WHEAT.

We have already shown that the Middle and Northwestern States and Territories of this country are only to be relied on for a surplus production of wheat, that the annual surplus is limited, and that our annual exports to foreign countries have not materially increased for a period of half a century. The total demand of Great Britain for a foreign supply of wheat being about sixteen millions of bushels annually, even if the United States could supply the whole of this amount, and we possessed the monopoly of the English market, at prices which would nett one dollar and twenty-five cents a bushel on this side of the Atlantic, it may be worthy of consideration whether it would be expedient, for the sake of an addition of ten millions of dollars to our exports, to break down our manufactures of cotton, wool, and iron, now amounting to about 100 millions annually, which would be the effect of a free trade with Great Britain. Surely those

American farmers who are now engaged in supplying the home manufacturers with wool, provisions, and vegetables, which can not be sent to England, will think of this, before they consent to the proposed exchange of wheat and flour for British manufactures.

But it is absurd to suppose that the United States can contend with the continent of Europe in the contest for supplying England with "cheap bread." Europe is emphatically the wheat district of the world. According to McCulloch, the superficial extent of that continent is 3,650,000 square miles, and the region adapted to the cultivation of wheat comprises about four sevenths of all Europe, including all the densely peopled parts; equal to two millions of square miles adapted to wheat; which is about the entire area of the United States, exclusive of Texas and Oregon; and only about one fourth of this area is adapted to the culture of wheat.

Generally the parallel of 57° or 58° may be regarded as the northern limit of the cultivation of wheat in Europe, though in some favoured spots in Findand it is raised as far north as 60° or 61°. The hardier grains, as rye, oats, and barley, are cultivated in some sheltered situations on the coast of Norway as high as latitude 69° 30′ N., and in the interiour of Russia, at 67° or 68°.

When we consider what British enterprise has effected in India, and other parts of the globe, we may calculate what will be the effect of the transfer of British capital and skill to the European continent, where labour in agricultural districts may be had at 3d. to 6d. sterling per day, (or 6 to 12 cents,) when the repeal of the corn laws shall induce the enterprise. The already abundant surplus of grain in the fertile countries bordering on the Baltic and Black seas, as well as in Sicily and other ancient granaries on the Mediterranean; Poland, Hungary, and other parts of the Prussian and Austrian dominions; will be greatly augmented by the increased stimulus to cultivation, also by improvements in agriculture, and the extensive facilities now in progress, by railroads and steam navigation, to connect with Atlantic ports the rivers which mingle their waters with the Black sea, the Caspian, and the Mediterranean.

PRODUCTION OF GRAIN IN FRANCE.

From the Official Returns obtained by the Minister of Commerce and Agriculture

CONTINENTAL FRANCE AND ISLAND OF CORSICA.

	Imperial bushels.	Bushels per acre.
Wheat,	191,284,670	13.9
Spelt, or red wheat,	374,348	31.9
Maslin,*	32,530,982	14.4
Rye,	76,482,115	12.
Barley,	45,819,020	15.9
Oats,	134,474,408	18.1
Maize, or Indian corn,	20,955,726	13.4
Total,	501,921,332	14.6

Imports and Exports of Grain and Flour into and from France, from 1833 *to* 1840 *inclusive:*

		Total for 8 years.	Annual average.
IMPORTS—	Grain of all kinds,	18,796,033 bushels.	2,349,504 bushels.
	Flour,	274,026 cwt.	34,253 cwt.
EXPORTS—	Grain of all kinds,	13,345,905 bushels.	1,668,238 bushels.
	Flour,	3,581,279 cwt.	447,659 cwt.

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* Maslin consists of wheat and other grain mixed together. Estimating the average population of France for the last ten years at 33 millions, the consumption per individual of wheat will have been, within a small fraction, 5¾ bushels, and taking the excess of importations at about 6 bushels. If we add other grains, (except oats, which are principally consumed by horses,) the consumption will have been 11½ bushels per individual, exclusive of excess of imports over exports.

In 1835 and 1836, there were sent to Spain from France, 5,547,070 bushels of grain, which are included in the above.

About two-thirds of the whole exports of grain and flour were to Algiers, where there is a large French army, and to the French West Indies. The above exports include flour of foreign grain ground in France. The total value of the grain and flour imported was $25,941,758 and of the exports $24,115,761. Excess of imports, only $825,997 for the whole term of 8 years.

The cultivation of grain in France is protected by a tariff with a sliding scale, similar to the corn laws of Great Britain. Notwithstanding grain is produced at a cheap rate, and the price of wheat in France for a series of years has averaged $1 20, or as low as in the Atlantic ports of the United States, a committee of the Chamber of Deputies reported in 1832 that, "if we admitted the food, and raiment, and colonial, and other objects, which strangers would bring to our ports, we might probably gain some hundreds of millions ; should we be the richer in consequence ? for the riches of a State are in the elements of labour, and when labour fails to find employment, misery is produced. And it is not only a question of comfort, but one of existence ; *for if wheat were introduced without duty from the Baltic or Black sea, our maritime shores would remain uncultivated, and the effect of a ruinous competition would affect, more and more, nearly the whole of our agricultural population.*"

STOCK OF WHEAT IN GREAT BRITAIN AND THE PRINCIPAL PORTS OF THE SOUTH OF EUROPE, ON THE 1st OF JAN., 1486.

We take from the London Economist, a free trade paper, the following account of the present stocks of wheat in the ports of the south of Europe, also in bond in Great Britain, on the 1st of January last. The Baltic and other ports in the north of Europe are not included, as the disposable stock of wheat in those ports will be much smaller than usual. From the statement here given, American shippers of flour and grain will be able to judge what are the prospects of an immediate demand in Europe for any surplus we may have on this side of the Atlantic.

Stocks of Wheat at the beginning of the present year at Ports in the South of Europe :

		Quarters.		
At	Marseilles,	150,000	Black Sea wheat.	
	Genoa,	127,000		
	Leghorn,	165,000		
	Malta,	31,000	Black Sea and Egyptian wheat.	
	Venice,	6,000		
	Trieste,	42,000	Black Sea and Bannat wheat.	
	Constantinople,	37,000		
	Barletta and Sicily,	50,000	Neapolitan	do.
	Ancona,	80,000	Roman	do.
Black Sea &c.	Odessa,	615,000	Black Sea	do.
	Danube ports,	180,000	Danube	do.
	Taganrog and neighbouring ports,	30,000	Azof	do.
		1,513,000		
In bond in the ports of Great Britain and Ireland, Jan. 5, (and 508,633 cwt. flour,).		947,992	quarters foreign wheat.	
	Total,	2,460,992	quarters	
	Equal to	19,687,936	bushels.	

CHASE'S CARD SPINNER.

We have been so much pleased with this new and we think valuable machine, affording a most economical mode of supplying Southern planters and Northern farmers with a convenient and comfortable article for the wear of their working hands, that, not content with the short notice of it given in our last number, we have requested the proprietor to give us a full history and description of it, that our readers may have the best possible information of its principles, plan and operation; and we now submit the whole matter, with a handsome stereotype plate. In doing this, we would also respectfully call the attention of manufacturers to it. One way in which the British artisans manage to outgeneral us, is by the economy with which they convert every fibre of cotton and wool to some useful purpose, making the least possible waste; in this way they afford many of the coarser articles at a less cost; and this machine particularly pleases us in this respect, with the importance of which we doubt not others will be, as we are, most forcibly impressed.

With these few remarks, as naturally arising out of the plan of Mr. Chase, we submit the clear and lucid account which the proprietor has prepared, at our request, to accompany the plate, not doubting that the readers of the National Magazine will be much gratified with this full exhibition of a discovery which cannot fail to be profitable, and to add greatly to the comfort of the working classes.

CHASE'S CARD SPINNER,

For Carding and Spinning Wool, Silk, &c., around Cotton, Flax, Hemp, or other Yarn; Patented by Moses Chase, and owned by George Law, of Baltimore, Maryland.

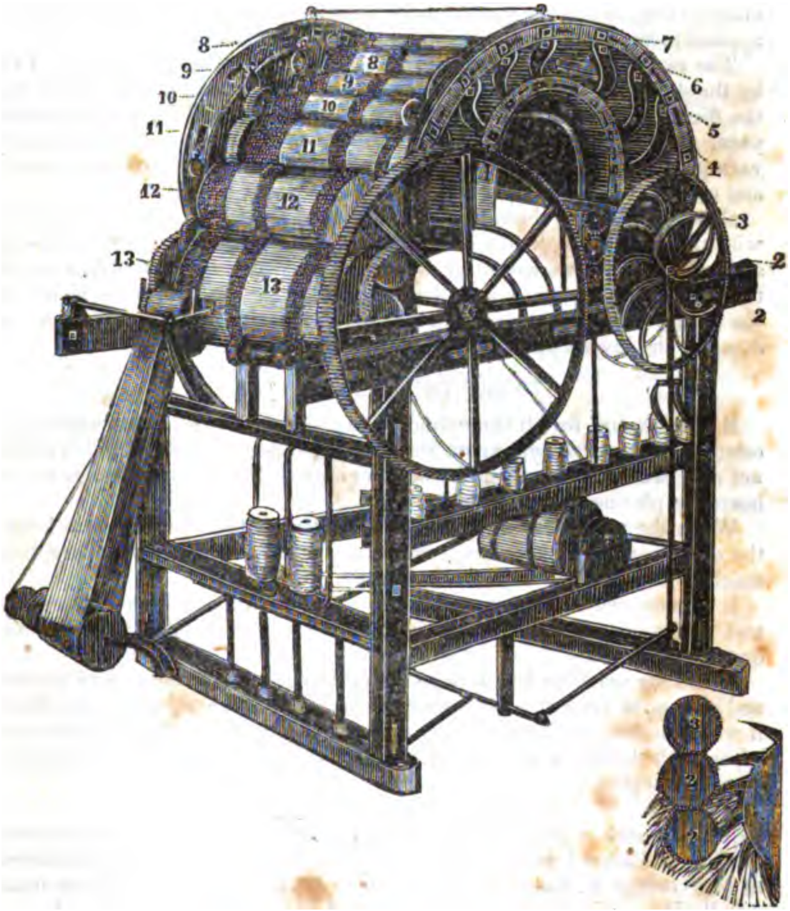
This machine cards the wool, &c., and spins it around a cotton or other thread, and by this combination produces a yarn for the manufacture of linsey woolsey, stockings, capots, blanketing, carpeting, belting, and other fabrics for domestic purposes, of superiour strength, warmth and durability.

It is both simple and durable in its construction, being composed principally of iron, not liable to be affected by the sudden changes of the atmosphere, and, in conjunction with the cotton spinning jenny, now in extensive use on Southern plantations, for spinning cotton into yarn, and with a common loom, the Card Spinner will enable the planter to be his own manufacturer; or by purchasing the coarsest kind of cotton yarn, where the planter has not the facility of spinning his cotton, he can, with wool of his own growing, and the attendance of two boys or grown hands, who *from age or other causes may be incapable of field labour*, spin, with two spindles, sufficient yarn to weave from six to eight yards of yard wide cloth per day.

These remarks apply more particularly to the small Plantation or Family Two Spindle Patent Card Spinner, constructed to work by hand or otherwise; the properties of which have been so thoroughly and satisfactorily tested by so many years' trial in the South by Mr. George Y. Kelso, an extensive sugar and cotton planter, near Alexandria, on Red river, Louisiana, and its merits so fully acknowledged by that gentleman and other planters who have seen its performance on Mr. Kelso's plantation, that the proprietor now feels perfect confidence in offering it to the public as an invaluable acquisition to the planter and farmer desirous to make their own material for winter clothing, &c.

He has also in operation a large 26 spindle Patent Card Spinner, constructed to work by water, steam or horse power, and feels equal confidence, from trials made of the performance of this large machine, that it will prove of great value to manufacturers, &c.

Chase's Plantation or Family Card Spinner consists of thirteen card cylinders, which are numbered in plate to correspond with similar numbers marked on each cylinder of the machine itself, as follows:



No.1,	The feed comb,	As represented in Plate, *detached*.	No. 7,	Workers,
" 2,	Two feeders,		" 8,	
" 2,			" 9,	Stripper,
" 3,	The feed stripper,		" 10,	Worker,
" 4,	Workers,		" 11,	Main cylinder,
" 5,			" 12,	Fancy,
" 6,	Stripper,		" 13,	Doffer.

So that in case of accident to any of the above cylinders, requiring them to be renewed at any time hereafter, this can be done without danger of mistake, by sending the number, which corresponds with a similar number marked on each cylinder of the machine itself.

TO FEED AND WORK THE CARD SPINNER.

The wool should be well washed and thoroughly divested of all burs and sticks, and then applied by hand to the wire teeth of the feed comb, (No. 1,) by drawing the wool over the points of the teeth till said comb (No. 1) is full of wool for carding.

Each revolution of the feed comb (No. 1) will cause the bell on machine to ring, when the carded wool must be taken from the lap belt and applied to the guide on the spinning part of the machine.

The carded wool thus applied will be taken from the doffer (No. 13) by the delivering roller, and twisted around the cotton or other yarn by the fliers, giving it all the appearance and properties of the best woollen yarn, *with the advantage over yarn made of wool alone*, that this new yarn posseses greater strength and durability, by its combination of wool and cotton.

Spools containing the cotton yarn adjusted for spinning and covering it with the carded wool, will be fixed on each machine, in working order, and exhibit the combination by which the carded wool is twisted around the cotton or other yarn, and thereby a great saving of wool is made in the filling. To change the spools when full, watch when the traverse is down at the lowest point, as the proper time for doing this.

TO SET THE CARD SPINNER.

It is necessary for all the cylinders to come nearly in contact with each other, *without touching*, except the fancy cylinder, (No. 12,) which must act as a brush, by touching the main cylinder (No. 11) just enough to be heard by placing the ear near it.

When the machine is in motion, it is necessary to be particular to keep the other cards from touching each other, as they would soon cause the machine to be so dull as not to card well.

It is also necessary to keep the journals of the machine well oiled, and particularly the fancy cylinder, (No. 11,) the spindles and spindle drum.

When the machine becomes so dirty, from the accumulation of grease and dirt, as to present a glossy appearance, it will be necessary to clean it with a a common wool or cotton card, by drawing it in the direction of, or with the teeth upon the cylinders, taking care not to beat or knock down the teeth.

In the month of March, 1842, Mr. Moses Chase, inventor and patentee of Chase's Patent Card Spinners, went from Baltimore to the plantation of Mr. George Y. Kelso, in Louisiana, to put in operation two of his four spindle Patent Card Spinners, which he had contracted with Mr. Kelso to deliver there, and to instruct his people how to work to the best advantage. Mr. Chase remained several months at Mr. Kelso's, and having satisfied him, by actual experience of their performance, that these machines were an invaluable acquisition to the planter who desired to manufacture his own clothing, and that smaller machines could spin a sufficient quantity of yarn for plantation purposes, he was employed by Mr. Kelso to have such a machine built; and had reached Natchez, on his way to Baltimore, for the above purpose, when he learned there, that at Cincinnati he could contract for such a machine as he wanted: and he proceeded to Cincinnati, and arranged with Mr. James Pearce, a machinist of that city, who built a two spindle Patent Card Spinner for him. With this machine Mr. Chase returned to the plantation of Mr. Kelso, where he put it in operation in January, 1843; and with the attendance of a boy of ten years old and a girl of thirteen, who was a cripple, he continued to work it there successfully until the following summer, when he was employed by several planters in Mr. Kelso's neighbourhood, (who had seen the Cincinnati built machine at work, and were satisfied of its value,) to proceed to Baltimore, build a number of similar machines there, and ship them out to Louisiana for their use. In furtherance of this arrangement, Mr. Kelso shipped the Cincinnati built machine to Baltimore to serve as a model; upon which several improvements, suggested to Mr. Chase by his experience in working said machine at Mr. Kelso's, were to be made. Unfortunately, Mr. C. was attacked with congestive fever on the eve of his departure from Louisiana, and reduced so low that he was for a long time incapable of attending to business, which delayed the building of any machines in Baltimore, until I arranged with Mr. Chase for his patent right to the invention, and had seven machines built with the several improvements above alluded to, which are as follows:

The Cincinnati built Card Spinner had a wooden frame, which was liable to loosen in the joints, and be affected by any sudden change of the atmosphere. This is remedied in the Baltimore built machines, by substituting iron frames, which are less bulky and much stronger than wooden frames, and are not affected by the humidity, &c., of a Southern climate.

The Cincinnati built machine had two main cylinders, two fancies, and only two workers, and one stripper, which were not sufficient to prepare the wool properly for spinning. This is remedied in the Baltimore built machines, by giving them only one main cylinder and one fancy, with five workers and three strippers, which card the wool three times as much as when passing through only two workers and one stripper.

The Cincinnati built machine was geared with bands and belts, which required tightening or slackening every day; and, in consequence of the friction caused by the tightness of the bands and belts, double the power was required to drive the Cincinnati built machine, that is required to drive the Baltimore built machine, owing to the latter being driven with tooth or cog gearing, (except the drum cylinder, strippers, and fancy, which are always driven by a band or belt.)

The Cincinnati built machine had the wool for carding fed by a feed apron on a feed table, which required continual watching and pushing forward with the hand, or the wool would stop, when there was a great risk of a careless or unskilful hand forcing in too much wool and choking the machine. This is remedied in the Baltimore built machines, by substituting for the feed apron and feed table, a feed comb, the teeth of which are made just long enough to hold as much wool as is necessary to feed the machine, and no more; so that this feed comb cannot choke; and there is a bell attached to the Baltimore built machines, which rings on each revolution of the feed comb, and notifies the proper time for taking the lap or sliver of wool from off the lap belt, and applying it to the guide on the spinning part of the machine.

The Cincinnati built machine spun the yarn with live spindles, which would not bear running very fast, in consequence of the fliers not being connected at the bottom, and the quick speed caused the flyers to expand and strike one against the other. This is remedied in the Baltimore built machines, by substituting dead spindles, with fliers connected, and having a bearing at each end; so that they can be run at any speed without danger, and will work best by running the main cylinder at about 120 revolutions per minute, whilst the Cincinnati built machine would not bear to run more than 60 revolutions per minute.

The Cincinnati built machine was not provided with a sufficient guard, to prevent it from being worked backward, and a careless or unskilful hand, giving the machine a very few turns backward, would injure the carding part of it. This is remedied in the Baltimore built machines, by a ratchet wheel, so fixed to the crank that the machine cannot be worked backward.

The Cincinnati built machine had only two bobbins or spools for holding cotton, flax, or other yarn to be covered with wool, fixed on the bobbin or spool rail. This is remedied in the Baltimore built machines, by fixing eight bobbins or spools for that purpose on the bobbin or spool rail; so that the wool can be spun around four cotton or other threads, on each spindle, for belting, stocking yarn, &c.

One of these improved Baltimore built Plantation or Family Machines was lately exhibited at Washington City, where Mr. Chase put it in operation, in presence of many members of both Houses and others, who expressed their approbation of the quality of the combined yarn spun by it, and of the several fabrics manufactured with this yarn, used for the filling, with cotton yarn for the warp or chain.

The American Journal of Improvement in the Useful Arts, and Mirror of the Patent Office, a monthly paper, published at Washington, contains the following notices of said machine and exhibition, including a letter to the Editor of that Journal from the Hon. Dixon H. Lewis, Senator of the United States, from Alabama, whose opinion on all subjects is entitled to the highest respect:

"Of all the improvements and inventions of modern times, there is, perhaps, none of more importance to the Southern planter and Northern manufacturer than Chase's Patent Card Spinner, of which machine Mr. George Law, of Baltimore, is the proprietor. It is intended for the fabrication of an entirely new article, by enveloping a cotton thread in a woollen fibre, making a thread of superiour strength to one of the same diameter of all wool, and will entwine from one to four threads of cotton, flax, or other yarn (twisting them into one thread,) covered with wool. The goods manufactured of this material, possess all the warmth of woollen cloth, with greater durability, and in consequence of the principal material used (cotton) being so much cheaper than wool, they can be made at a far less cost than an article composed entirely of wool.

"The machine is very simple in its construction, and, being made principally of cast iron, will only require a renewal of the cards, occasionally.

"At one operation, it cards the wool and envelopes the cotton yarn in a woollen integument, strongly entwined around it, in larger or smaller quantities, according to the species of goods intended to be made, at the wish of the operator, preparing the yarn for the manufacture of a substitute for all woollen goods, from a light flannel to a heavy blanket.

"Mr. Law has several of these small machines finished. They are intended for the use of planters, and with two superannuated hands, not strong enough for field work, will prepare material enough in one day for the filling of 6 to 8 yards of yard wide cloth.

"Mr. Law has also in operation a large 26 spindle machine, to be employed in manufactories, which is capable of preparing one hundred and twenty-five pounds of the material daily, dispensing with the use of the mule or jack, which is a costly machine, requiring much room to work it in.

"The number of spindles may be increased to any desirable extent.

"The small machines have been fairly tested by three years' trial in the South by one of its largest planters, and its merits fully acknowledged.

"CHASE'S PATENT CARD SPINNERS, to which we have called the attention of our readers, in the foregoing article, has, since we prepared that article, been exhibited in the Capitol here, together with specimens of various fabrics, manufactured from the material, prepared by the machine, viz, blanketing, fulled cloth for field hands, or hands engaged in laborious occupations, and flannels, linseys, and stocking yarn.

"The warmth and strength of those specimens attracted the attention and elicited the commendation of all who examined them. And they were astonished when the novel combination, by which these articles were produced, was explained, acknowledging at once their superiority to goods of the same apparent quality manufactured of cotton and wool, or all wool, in the old way.

"A specimen of belting was also exhibited, made by using a thread prepared by this machine, of four threads of cotton enveloped in wool, and then doubled and twisted, for both warp and filling. This belting is used for bands or straps to drive gins or other heavy machinery, and is said by those who have used it to be far superiour, in every respect, to leather straps, which are generally used for such purposes. When once drawn tight, they are not liable to stretch; they never become smooth and slip, as leather straps frequently do, and they are far more durable.

"The principle and the mode of combination was ocularly demonstrated by a small machine in full operation in the same department. The simplicity and ingenuity of its mechanism, the ease, facility, and rapidity with which it executed its functions, the little labour required to produce the effect, and the perfect manner in which it performed its operation, satisfied all who saw it, that the machine was one of the most valuable improvements of the present day.

"It was visited by many members of both Houses of Congress, who considered the novelty of its invention only equalled by its importance to the country, which would, from the cheapness and excellence of the fabrics produced through its agency, enable this country to set foreign competition at defiance."

"WASHINGTON, February, 25th, 1846.

"SIR—I have witnessed the operation of Chase's Patent Card Spinner, for enveloping cotton, hemp, or flax, with wool, and am convinced that the machine will give a thread much stronger than one made with wool in the ordinary way, and equally as warm, without showing any thing else than the wool. The fabrics I have seen are, I would suppose, stronger than all wool, and as strong as cotton, possessing the warmth of one, with the durability of the other.

"I should suppose such a machine could be introduced to great advantage in private families in the South, and can be operated easily by two very ordinary hands. Dixon H. Lewis.

"*To the Editor of the American Journal, &c.*"

Chase's 26 spindle Patent Card Spinner is constructed to work by water, steam, or horse power, and would prove of great value in any factory disposed to test its advantages over the old mode of spinning woollen yarn, for the manufacture of coarse woollens, or the filling of mixed fabrics. Among these advantages, the most material is, that in the new mode of spinning the combined yarn, mules or jacks, are altogether dispensed with. Without them, a floor of fifty feet, by twenty-five feet, would afford sufficient room to work one twenty inch wool-picker, three forty inch card and sliver breakers, and six twenty-six spindle card spinners. The picker would pick, and the breakers card and sliver, about 360 lbs. of wool per day, which, with an equal weight of cotton yarn, spun on cotton spinning jennies, would enable the six twenty-six spindle card spinners to spin about 720 lbs. of combined yarn per day. This ought to be sufficient yarn to supply 24 to 30 power looms with filling, each loom turning out about 40 yards per day, according to the quality of the goods wove. These breakers, spinners, and picker, would require one prime carder and fifteen boys or girls to attend them, at an expense of about $5 25 per day, for the wages of these hands.

To spin a similar quantity of woollen yarn by the old mode, would require one twenty-four inch picker, six forty inch wool-breakers, six forty inch condensers, and six mules, of 250 to 270 spindles each, or nine jacks, and one prime carder, six mule spinners, six piecers, and eleven boys and girls to attend them, at an expense of about $12 per day, for the wages of these hands, and *four* floors or rooms, of fifty by twenty-five feet each, at $1 per day for the rent of the *three additional floors* or *rooms*, required for the mules or jacks—in all, $13 per day, or a saving of $7 50 per day in additional wages and rent, besides a saving of at least $5,500 in the cost of the mules or jacks and three wool-breakers, dispensed with altogether by the new process. There would also be a considerable saving in the cost of wool, as short, inferiour qualities, such as second shearing, hatters', noiles, waste, &c., can be spun by the new mode, without the addition of a mixture of longer staple wool, which is necessary in the old mode of spinning these inferiour qualities of wool into yarn. There is a further saving in the cost of cotton or other yarn substituted for wool, inside the wool covering of the combined yarn; and in dispensing with oil, which is a heavy charge in the old mode of carding and spinning wool, for drawing the fibre, and is not requisite in the new mode; and cloth, made with yarn for filling, and with cotton warp or chain, has been found, on trial, to *full as well* as cloth made with woollen yarn, by the old mode.

GEORGE LAW,
Proprietor of Chase's Patent Card Spinner,
No. 39 Hollins street, Baltimore.

GRAND EXHIBITION OF AMERICAN MANUFACTURES

AT THE CITY OF WASHINGTON.

To the Editor:

House of Representatives, March 24, 1846.

With a view to furnish correct information in regard to the *character*, *prices*, and *extent* of American manufactures, as well as to correct misrepresentations on that subject, the undersigned respectfully invite the Artisans, Mechanics, and Manufacturers of the United States to send specimens of their various productions, with their prices, to be compared with the *British* manufactures sent from *Manchester*, and now being exhibited in the room of the "Committee on the Post Office and Post Roads," to influence the action of Congress in relation to the proposed modification of the Tariff.

Andrew Stewart,
James Thompson,
Richard Brodhead,
Alexander Ramsay,
Moses McClean,
James Black,
J. S. Yost,
Jos. Buffington,
John Strohm,
John H. Ewing,
Jacob Erdman,
Abraham McIlvaine,
John Blanchard,
James Pollock,
C. Darragh.

We are indeed rejoiced to see, by the above invitation from fifteen members of Congress, that it is proposed to get up an exhibition of a truly national character, of the results of American capital, skill, and industry, under the eyes of those who make and unmake our laws; and we earnestly recommend to our manufacturers, artists, and mechanics, cordially to unite in it, and make it worthy of the occasion.

We have long entertained the opinion, that nothing but a knowledge of the magnitude of the interests involved in the great question of protection to our labour, capital, and skill, and the aptitude we so eminently possess to supply ourselves from the bounteous stores of our own raw materials, with all the necessaries and comforts, and most of the luxuries of life, was wanting, to open the eyes of the most skeptical, and convince them that our moral, as much as our physical happiness, is involved in this great question.

What we need in this matter is, to create a real American feeling—a feeling that every man in the whole Union is concerned in establishing and exhibiting, beyond all dispute or cavil, the fact, that we can, by well paid, well fed, and educated labour, do in this country what can only be done in Europe by degraded, ill fed, and ill requited labour; namely, supply all our wants at home, and sustain a large and magnificent commerce.

Our commerce, it is true, is one of our greatest interests; and not an individual of this whole Union is more anxious for its most complete success, than the editor of this work. He has often felt, in many foreign lands, his heart swell with pride as he has seen the stars and stripes of our national flag floating on the breezes of far distant climes; and he would feel that he was doing dishonor to his country, if a sentiment, or even a word, should ever be traced by his pen, that could tend to lessen the number of the gallant ships of the United States which spread their swelling sails to every wind, and whiten every sea.

But to support such a commerce, and at the same time to sustain the real independence of the country, we must not refuse the awards of Providence, and throw away the rich endowments with which the land is teeming. We must not suffer our coal and iron to lay hidden in the bowels of the earth; we must not discard that great power, which is every day increasing, and enabling us more and more, by the triumph of the arts in their present rapid advancement, to overcome the hindrances of time and space. We must not lessen the value of knowledge by confining ourselves to the one, though noble, employment of husbandry.

We must march forward in the path that other nations are pursuing. It is not enough that we should speed the plough; we must drive the spindle, throw the shuttle, weave the woof, and poise the hammer. This we can do, with a vast advantage over the old countries of Europe, the mass of whose people are borne down with the remnants of feudalism, with the sustainment of national hierarchies, and debts contracted in ambitious wars. We can, and we do, divide the benefits of our industry, giving to the labourer his due reward. We have no lords of manors, nor privileged orders, to wring from the hard hand of honest labour the proceeds of its toil.

Let those who would be made acquainted with the systems of Europe, ponder well the account we have given in this number of the state of the working classes in Naples and Sicily—of the condition of the population of England and Wales—and they will there see the contrast between an American workman, and one whose unhappy lot is cast in those over populated countries—or rather, under those bad systems of government, where the sweat of the brow brings no rest, nor peace, nor comfort, to the wretched *hind*, as God's image is called, by his bloated and purse-proud oppressors.

But we have said enough to show the proud distinction that exists between the American freeman and the European slave; and we think no measure that can be adopted, will more completely give rise to true national feelings, than the one we now recommend.

Let the exhibition, therefore, be what it should be—let the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth, be shown forth in all its beauty and majesty, and no man with an American heart, but it will leap at the sight with joy and gratitude—joy that his lot has been cast in such a country, and gratitude that a bounteous Providence has thus showered down upon it every physical and moral blessing.

MONTHLY LIST OF PATENTS.

A List of Patents issued from the 21st of February, to the 20th of March, 1846, inclusive:

To Moses Chase, of Boston, Massachusetts, for improvement in Chimney Caps. Patented March 7th, 1846.

To George Sweney, of Bucyrus, Ohio, for improvement in Saw Mills. Patented March 7th, 1846.

To Rensselaer D. Granger, of Albany, New York, for improvement in Cooking Stove. Patented March 7th, 1846,

To Russell S. Morrison and Benjamin B. Cushing, of Frankfort, Maine, for improvement in Saw Mills. Patented March 7th, 1846.

To David Hinman, of Brunswick, Ohio, for improvement in Piston for Pumps, Engines, &c. Patented March 7th, 1846.

To Richard C. Holmes, of Cape May, New Jersey, for improvement in Hatches for Vessels. Patented March 7th, 1846.

To Pliny Weller, of Fowlersville, New York, for improvement in Threshing Machine. Patented March 7th, 1846.

To William H. Jennison, of New York City, for improvement in Filters, (having assigned his right, title, and interest in said improvement, to William Kumbel.) Patented March 7th, 1846.

To Dominique Frick Albert, of Manchester, England, for improvement in the Manufacture of Soap. Patented March 7th, 1846.

To William F. Ketchum, of Buffalo, New York, for improvement in Reaping Machines. Patented March 7th, 1846.

To Rhodolphus Kinsley, of Springfield, Massachusetts, for improvement in Mortise Latches for Doors. Patented March 7th, 1846.

To John H. Davis, of Lumberville, Pennsylvania, for improvement in Door Locks. Patented March 7th, 1846.

To Jacob K. Vaughan and Evan Henry Everman, of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, for improvement in Manufacture of Soap. Patented March 7th, 1846.

To Jas. Putnam, of Hamilton, New York, for improvement in Seed Planter. Patented March 7th, 1846.

To Francis B. Pye, of New York City, for improvement in Permutation Locks. Patented March 7th, 1846.

To Daniel Hunsicker, of Hartleton, Pennsylvania, for improvement in Pumps for Raising and Measuring Liquids. Patented March 7th, 1846.

To Amos Call, of Springfield, Massachusetts, for improvement in Fastenings for Doors. Patented March 7th, 1746.

To Jeremiah Darling, of Adrian, Michigan, for improvement in Reaping Machines. Patented March 7th, 1846.

To Frederick H. Bartholomew, of New York City, for improvement in Hydrants. Patented March 7th, 1846.

To Solyman Merrick, of Springfield, Massachusetts, for improvement in Feeders for Screw Machines. Patented March 7th, 1846.

To Nicholas U. Chafee, of Charleston, South Carolina, for improvement in the Manufacture of Rosin and Spirits of Turpentine. Patented March 14th, 1846.

To John Blue, of Covert, New York, for improvement in Belts for conveying Straw and Grain. Patented March 14th, 1846.

To Starr Fairchild, of Trumbull, Connecticut, for improvement in Hanging Carriages. Patented March 14th, 1846.

To John G. Brant, of Cumberland, Maryland, for improvement in Conveying, Cleaning, and Assorting Coal. Patented March 14th, 1846.

To Denison Williams, of Albany, New York, for improvement in Dyeing Hair, Wools, &c. Patented March 14th, 1846.

To Ezra Ripley, of Troy, New York, for improvement in Tea Kettles. Patented March 14th, 1846.

To William D. Andrews, of New York City, for improvement in the Centrifugal Pump. Patented March 14th, 1846.

To Thomas C. Clarke, of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, for improvement in Stopcocks. Patented March 14th, 1846.

To William Yates and Denis Dolan, of Manchester, England, for improvement in Fire and Water Proof Cements. Patented March 14th, 1846.

To Seneca Ladd, of Danville, Vermont, for improvement in Horse Rakes. Patented March 14th, 1846.

To David Harkness, of Raisin Michigan, for improvement in Grain Rakes. Patented March 14th, 1846.

To William A. Pratt, of Alexandria, District of Columbia, for improvement in Coloring Daguerreotype Pictures. Patented March 14th, 1846.

To Isaac P. Smith, of Orangetown, New York, for improvement in Fan Blowers. Patented March 14th, 1846.

To Edwin K. Gale, of New York City, for improvement in Abdominal Supporters. Patented March 14th, 1846.

RE-ISSUES.

To George Nichols, of Trumbull, Connecticut, for improvement in the manner of connecting the body of a Carriage with the Perch by means of Springs. Patented 10th April, 1844. Re-issued March 14th, 1846.

To John and Charles Hanson, of Huddersfield, England, for improvements in the Machine for making or manufacturing Pipes or Tubes of lead and other metallic substances—(assigned to B. Tatham, Henry B. Tatham, George N. Tatham.) Patented 31st August, 1837, in England. Reissued in America the 14th March, 1846.

To R. P. Cunningham, of Abington, Connecticut, for improvement in the mode of throwing Shuttles in Power Looms. Patented 25th April, 1843. Re-issued March 14th, 1846.

DESIGN PATENTED.

To Henry Biggins, of New York City, for Design for Spittoons. Patented March 14th, 1846.

ENGLISH TRADE IN METALS.

IRON, &c.

We present to our readers the annexed accounts of the Foreign Trade in Metals, taken from the London Mining Journal of the 28th ultimo, received by the last steamer.

It will be seen that considerable excitement prevails on the subject of reducing the duty on metallic ores. Under date of the 28th of February, the leading article of the Mining Journal thus comments upon it:

London, Feb. 28, 1846.

Not being able to present our promised statement, on the subject of free trade in ores and metals, in so perfect a form as we contemplated, we have considered it advisable to postpone its insertion until the next Journal. It would, however, be remiss on our part were we to allow the events of the passing week to go by unnoticed, and, more especially, when we find what Members of Parliament condescend to observe on the metal trade—while we admit the Premier set them an example, when treating on *feathers* and tin. One or two words, then, on the question raised, which we shall, however, entertain at greater length, when taking the subject of ores and metals into consideration. We find that Mr. Muntz, the member for Birmingham—albeit a free trader—was honest enough to differ from the Premier, who asserted that free trade had, in every instance, benefited this country; and, as an illustration, he cited the instance of zinc, or spelter, which from a price of £75 per ton had fallen to £12, and might now be quoted at £20—and an injury thereby, by the reduction, or, in fact, the abolition, of an import duty on foreign zinc, inflicted on the miner and smelter at home. It is true Sir G. Clerk did attempt to contravert the statement of the honourable member, and what were the arguments he propounded? He tells us, forsooth, that an increase of foreign zinc has attended the alteration made by the tariff, as to the import of that metal; at the same time forgetting to state that, while the consumption has increased, and, consequently, the demand, that the make at home has become "next to nothing." We do not purpose entering into figures, but one or two words are necessary to set matters straight, and to enable our readers to judge of the value to be attached to the statistics of Sir G. Clerk, and the government, represented by him. In the first place, that gentleman refers to manufactured zinc, forgetting or mistaking the observations of Mr. Muntz, which applied to spelter, or zinc, as manufactured, or produced, from the ore, and not manufactured articles—the importation of which is too absurd even, one would have supposed, to have entered into the imagination of the Premier, or one of his cohorts. Now, as some slight evidence of the effect pro-

duced, we may observe that, some years since, not only were there three works for making ingot brass at Bristol, including those of Harford's, where sheet brass and ingots were made, the process being by cementation, shot copper being employed with calamine, from the Mendip and Derbyshire Hills, but also three establishments at Birmingham, and also one at Cheadle, and another at Stone, then existed. Where are they now?

LATEST CURRENT PRICES OF METALS,

London, February 27, 1846.

	£	s.	£	s.	d.
Iron—Bar *a*, Wales...ton	0	0—	9	0	0
" London	9	15—	10	0	0
Nail rods, "	0	0—	10	15	0
Hoop, (Staf.)"	0	0—	12	0	0
Sheet, " "	0	10—	13	0	0
Bars, " "	0	0—	11	0	0
Welsh coal-blast foundry pig... ..	5	0—	5	15	0
Scotch pig *b*, Clyde...	3	12½—	3	15	0
Rails...............	11	10—	11	15	0
Russian, CCND *c*....	0	0—	——		
" PSI	0	0—	——		
" Gourieff.....	0	0—	14	10	0
" Archangel...	0	0—	13	12	6
Swedish *d*, on the spot.	0	0—	11	10	0
" Steel, fagt...	0	0—	16	5	0
" " kegs *e*.	15	5—	15	10	0
Copper—Tile *f*.....	0	0—	92	0	0
Tough cake.........	0	0—	93	0	0
Best selected........	0	0—	96	0	0

	£	s.	£	s.	d.
Copper—Ord. sheets. lb.	0	0—	0	0	10½
" bottoms..	0	0—	0	0	11½
Tin—Com. blocks *g*, cwt.	0	0—	5	0	0
" bars........	0	0—	5	1	0
Refined...........	0	0—	5	3	0
Straits *h*...........	4	7—	4	8	0
Banca.............	4	9—	4	10	0
Tin Plates—Ch. IC *i*, bx.	1	13—	1	14	0
" IX....	1	19—	2	0	0
Coke, IC.........	1	7—	1	8	0
" IX.........	1	13—	1	14	0
Lead—Sheet *k*......ton	0	0—	20	10	0
Pig refined........	0	0—	21	10	0
" common	0	0—	19	10	0
" Spanish, in bnd	18	15—	19	0	0
" American	0	0—	——		
Spelter—Cake *l*.......	19	10—	19	15	0
Zinc—Sheet *m*, export*.	0	0—	30	0	0
Quicksilver n.......lb.	0	0—	0	4	6
Refined Metal......ton	0	0—	——		

(*From our Correspondent.*)

The only alteration to notice since last week's Mining Journal, is in Scotch pig iron, of which several parcels have been sold at 72s. 6d. to 75s., and one sale was *reported* on the 25th instant at 70s.; the market, has, however, rallied, and very little can now be obtained under 75s. All other descriptions of iron have maintained their prices.

Communicated by Messrs. Whitcomb & Barton, Old Broad street.

The metal market has been exceedingly quiet this week. A few transactions have taken place in Scotch pig iron, a shade under our quotations. No sellers now at less than 77s. 6d., cash.

GLASGOW IRON TRADE.

FEB. 20.—Since the above date the tendency of the price is downwards. Several large lots changed hands on Wednesday at 75s., and Thursday and to-day sales were made at 74s. for the low Nos. Even less than the above would have been accepted for a considerable parcel. We quote the price 74s.—*National Advertiser.*

FEB. 24.—Five or six thousand tons could easily have been purchased to-day at 75s. A similar quantity would have at once met purchasers at 70s. to 72s. 6d. We quote the price 73s. 6d.—*National.*

From the same.

We have received a document, which has just been issued from the statistical department of the Board of Trade, giving an account of the principal articles of foreign and colonial merchandise imported and exported into the United Kingdom during the past year—as compared with the preceding—from which we select the following, as of importance to our readers:

		1844.	1845.
IMPORTS—	Tin, cwt.	12,065	25,588
	Saltpetre and nitre,.......	349,870	465,924
EXPORTS—	Iron and steel,...........	2,590,833	3,555,486
	Copper and brass,.........	1,644,248	1,702,345
	Hardware and cutlery,....	1,745,519	2,194,523
	Salt,....................	213,746	218,941

A GLANCE AT THE OLD WORLD.

We are in possession of most of our foreign periodicals of the last month, by the arrival of the steamer Hibernia.

SCIENTIFIC.

We find, in the Edinburgh Philosophical Journal, of March, a paper from Dr. J. W. Draper, of New York, on the cause of the circulation of the blood. He asserts, in contradiction to the earlier writers, who consider the heart a hydraulic machine, that the systemic circulation is due to the de-oxydation of the arterial blood, and that the pulmonary circulation is due to the oxydation of the venous blood. The whole paper is curious and learned.

In the same journal is a paper on the winter storms of the United States, from the pen of Lt. Col. Sabine, in which he alludes to the second memoir of Professor Loomis of this city, and gives an analysis of the memoir, with high praise.

Great attention has of late years been paid to storms and to temperature. If the pains-taking meteorologists of our day can but obtain facts enough, we may, by and by, have some general theory, which will be of advantage in the economy of life, and the conducting of business upon the seas.

The sailing of an American vessel to Hong Kong, with upwards of 300 tons of anthracite coal, has not been unobserved. Accordingly, we find a valuable paper in the magazine before us, written by Mr. R. C. Taylor, of Philadelphia, containing remarks on the anthracite and bituminous coal fields of China. As there is an expectation in the public mind that, at no very distant day, there will be a trade between China and the western shores of the United States, it is as well to know what are to be the sources of supply for the steamers which are to carry on that trade.

Mr. Taylor deems the quantity in China inexhaustible. He speaks of the various localities and qualities of the mineral with exactness, and furnishes some new and interesting facts.

In the East Indies various depots of European coal have been established for the service of the British steamers. The fuel itself, partly bituminous and partly anthracite, is now obtained from South Wales, and of course at an enormous expense. The East India Company has had to pay a freight of ten dollars per ton on five thousand tons of coal annually imported into Bombay. Some bituminous coal has been found in the vicinity of Calcutta, and in Mergui island in the bay of Bengal.

It seems there are three varieties of coal, and in Pekin, a kind used by the blacksmiths, which they pound into minute particles before using; not because, as Mr. Taylor suggests, it decrepitates in larger masses, but for the practical advantage, which all blacksmiths understand, of a quicker fire, making it compact, and bringing it into close contact with the metal to be heated. The people of Pekin use another and harder kind of coal for culinary purposes; and still another, of a soft and black quality, which is mixed up with clay, and sold in the form of bricks and balls, as an economical fuel.

There is an anthracite coal formation about thirty miles from Pekin, of great extent and value: but as mining is little understood by the Chinese, this natural treasure has been but little improved by them. Extending over large areas in China are beds of tertiary or brown coal, cannel coal, anthracite, glance, and graphitic anthracite.

At the pit's mouth near Pekin, coal is sold for sixty copecs per poud, equivalent to $4 63 per ton of 20 cwt. When it arrives in the city, the expense of transporting it there on the backs of mules, and of camels, has increased its price to $11 60 per ton. A miserable kind of coal dust is, however, sold for $7 75 per ton. A Chinese miner can get out 12 cwt of coal per day, and his earnings amount to 46 cents per day.

We find a notice in this number, of the experiments made last year by Professor Henry, and Professor Alexander, of Princeton, to ascertain the comparative temperature of the spots on the sun, and the luminous portion of the disk. It was ascertained, by a series of very elegant experiments, that there was a sensible difference, and that the *spot* emitted less heat than the surrounding parts. And here we may remark, that in this March number of the Philosophical Magazine, three of the most interesting articles are American.

There are three iron steamboats now plying regularly on the river Nile.

We hear of some improvements in the Sympiesometer, by which the avaporation or congelation of the fluid is thoroughly prevented. Our readers are no doubt aware, that much dependence is now placed on this instrument by mariners, and while it gives the barometric pressure of the atmosphere with great nicety, it is of small size, need not be swung in gimbals, nor is it affected by the motion of the ship.

We find some excellent directions for navigating the Gulf of Mexico, in the last number of the Nautical Magazine, which would be worth republishing at this time, when we have a squadron cruising there.

Orton's life boat is now attracting much attention in England, and as the public mind in this country has been highly excited by the recent melancholy losses on our coast, and as measures will probably be taken in the city of New York to furnish some means of preserving life under similar circumstances, we will note briefly the principles and character of Orton's life boat. It is 26 feet long, and six broad; on each side there is an air-tight metal cylinder, and at each end an air-tight case. These cylinders and these cases form the buoyant portion of the boat, and are capable of supporting upwards of 4,000 lbs. The external surface of the air-tight cases is covered with double planking, forming at once a protection to the cases, and an outer facing of great strength to the boat. Extending across the boat are six broad thwarts, contributing greatly to her strength, and materially increasing her buoyancy. Below these thwarts, extending from end to end of the boat, is the well, formed of two planks converging below. The flooring of the well is formed of metal rods which supply not only this flooring of the well, but the ballast of the boat. This ballast is still further increased by cylinders on each side of the bottom of the well, which, when empty, add little to the weight of the boat, but when full of water, as is the case when the boat is launched, give so much additional ballast. The boat is thus closed at the bottom, except the spaces between the lateral cylinders and the well, and this is filled by three strips of wood, extending from end to end of the boat. On these strips are rowlocks for the paddles to work in. It is claimed for this boat, thus open to the sea, that any volume of water which breaks into her is immediately discharged, that she cannot well upset, and that, if she should, she must, of necessity, right again. This boat can be worked with paddle-wheels or oars; nine or ten men can launch her; she lies low in the water, rising only twenty-seven inches at the stern, and takes little wind On the whole, the invention is very ingenious, and should be widely known.

A railway clock has been prepared in England, which, by a very simple mechanism, shows the time at the terminus, and the time of the locality, at any one moment.

The gutta percha, to which we have before alluded as a species of caoutchouc, is attracting much attention. It is the Malayan name for a substance which is the concrete juice of a large forest tree, a native of the shores of the Straits of Malacca, Borneo, and the adjacent countries. It is of a pale yellowish, or dirty white colour, nearly as hard as wood, though it will receive an impression from the nail. It is soluble in coal naptha, in caoutchouc oil, and in ether, but is insoluble in alcohol and water, floating on the latter. When placed in water at 110° it yields but slightly to the nail; at 145° it is pliable, and can be moulded into any form, but it easily becomes hard again, and loses its pliability, thus differing essentially from caoutchouc. It is manufactured into door handles, being hard enough for that purpose. It is free from stickiness, is inodorous, resists the action of grease, and mixes readily with pigments.

India Rubber has entered largely into the commerce of the world, and is now, under Mr. Goodyear's patent, manufactured into more than three hundred varieties of useful and almost indispensable articles.

We learn that Mr. Goodyear's improvement in the process of preparing India rubber has been introduced into England. It is spoken of in some of the late scientific books, and perhaps a brief notice of his method, so far as it is is known, may be worthy of introduction here. He commenced his investigations in the year 1834, and has continued to devote himself to experiments connected with his design, ever since that period. His first patent, issued in 1837, was for the curing of India rubber by the aid of magnesia; and another one, in the same year, esteemed important and valuable, was to cure it by the use of acids. But his more recent, and the most valuable of all his improvements in the manufacture of the rubber. was the preparation of the article by means of a compound of lead and sulphur, applied under a high degree of heat. To bring out and perfect this improvement, has cost Mr. Goodyear upwards of one hundred thousand dollars. The result of the discovery has exercised a wonderful influence, both on commerce and manufactures. It has created a constant demand for the caoutchouc, which is now regularly quoted in the market, and it has led to the most ingenious modifications of the article, and in almost every form.

The process is not as yet understood in England, although a Mr. Hancock has been making experiments, which thus far have terminated unfavorably.

We have seen the report of the English Guage Commissioners, consisting of Professor Airy, Mr. Barlow, and Sir Frederick H. Smith, who were appointed in July last, by act of Parliament, to inquire whether provision ought not to be made in the future passage of railway bills, for a uniform guage.

We regret we have not space at this time to incorporate into our number a literal extract from the report. But the following is the substance of their decision:

1. As regards safety, accommodation, and convenience of passengers, no decided preference is due to either guage but on the broad guage the motion is most easy at high velocities.
2. In regard to speed, the advantages are with the broad guage.
3. In the transportation of goods, the narrow guage possesses the greatest convenience, and is more suited to general traffic.
4. The broad guage involves the greater outlay, and there is no incidental adequate reduction to compensate for the first cost. They, therefore, concluded that the narrow guage should be preferred for the general convenience, and also, from being worked for an extent of 1,901 miles in England, while the broad guage is worked but 274 miles.

They recommend an established guage at four feet eight and a half inches, in all railroads hereafter to be constructed, that no guage shall be allowed by any company except by consent of Parliament, and that a narrow guaged line be constructed from Oxford to Reading, and thence to Basingstoke, or by any shorter route, connecting the proposed Rugby and Oxford line with the Southwestern Railway—the object of this being to complete the general chain of narrow lines of communication between the North and South of England.

The introduction of railways into cities, to unload freight and passengers, is unavoidable, as transit is incomplete, if it terminate so far from the place desired as to subject them to additional and unnecessary charges. An engineer in London calculates that it would cause a large destruction of houses to furnish areas sufficient for the accommodation of the railways to terminate within five miles of St. Paul's. Here, then, is presented an important lesson; and now, before our cities become much larger, there should be a wise provision for the wants of railway lines, in advance.

The statistics of the Two Sicilies have been explored, and science and political economy may gather something from the revelation. The population of the city of Naples was, on the 1st of January, 1845, as follows:

Males,	197,423
Females,	203,390
Total,	400,803

Besides, there are the soldiers and strangers visiting the country. We understand that 2,882 persons were under detention for crimes, but this must be below the truth, since there are said to be 800,000 persons who are criminals, and under duress of some kind or other, in the kingdom of the Two Sicilies. The condition of the Neapolitans is indicated as follows:

Secular clergy,	3,401	Merchants and shopkeepers,	3,465
Regular clergy, monks and nuns included,	3,209	Notaries,	115
Proprietors,	16,878	Students,	1,383
Government officials,	8,337	Agriculturists and shepherds,	2,596
Pensioners,	10,902	Mechanics,	83,176
Professors of science and dependants,	5,091	Royal commission of beneficence,	2,830
Professors of liberal arts,	1,936	Military,	18,000

Education is entirely in the hands of the Jesuits. There is a number of public and private schools, all of which have to be licensed.

The commerce of Naples is ascertained from the following table of 1844:

Number of ships arrived in that year,						3,335
Tonnage,						88,648
Of these vessels,	2,926	were	Neapolitan,	and the	tonnage was	39,780
"	133	"	English,	"	"	20,957
"	119	"	French	"	"	5,585
"	65	"	Sardinian,	"	"	5,238
"	43	"	Tuscan,	"	"	10,159
"	10	"	Russian,	"	"	1,845
"	6	"	American,	"	"	553
"	6	"	Austrian,	"	"	1,314

Many of the English railways are now carrying the Government letter bags free of charge.

The Government schools of design are proceeding with great success in England.

We are surprised to learn, on examining the proceedings of the Asiatic Society in London, that a very favourable report on the culture of American cotton in India has been made, for this is contrary to what we have generally supposed.

The experiments were made first in the Bengal Presidency, in 1840, in its northwest division. The effort to produce the cotton failed. Similar results attended the planters at Gorruckpore and Rungpore. In the Madras Presidency the Bourbon cotton is succeeding. But the last trial of the American plant was at Dharwar, and this has succeeded. The climate is like that of Mississippi, and we learn the progress of the culture to be as follows:

Acres planted in 1842,........................ 600
" " 1843,........................ 3,000.
" " 1844,........................ 6,000
Estimated, 1845,........................ 15,000, and the produce is estimated to be one million pounds. The staple does not deteriorate, but improves. A Dr. Royle says that cotton can be furnished and shipped at the port for 2¼ pence per pound. The southern Mahratta Country is to be made the field of extensive cotton operations.

In the Annals of Natural History for March, we find two American contributors, Dr. Warren, of Boston, who, in a letter to Professor Owen, communicates some valuable remarks on the osteology and dentition of some North American Mastodons, and Mr. Ord, of Philadelphia, who contributes an interesting paper on the natural habitat of the common potato, and its introduction into Europe.

We perceive that Mr. Willkom is still continuing his botanical notices of Spain, in the Botanische Zeitung. His herbarium appears to be crowded with specimens of rare and beautiful plants.

An Austrian, named Hardinger, has discovered a method of distinguishing between natural and polarized light with the eye alone.

A scientific expedition is about to proceed to the Black Sea and its vicinity, under the direction of one M. Hommaire de Hell.

We notice the death of the eminent anatomist and surgeon, Dr. Carpue.

An electrical girl, named Angelique, is exhibiting in Paris. She is a kind of human torpedo. It seems she puzzles even Arago, who admits himself at fault. Her power surpasses that of a heavy Leyden battery. She was placed in a chair, and the chair suddenly flew one way and she in another. The same chair being held down by two persons is broken to pieces. Tables, sofas, and gueridons are projected with violence by the mere touch of her person. When Angelique is isolated from the ground, the projections do not take place. She is but thirteen years of age. We think we shall have this matter looked into by some of the contributors to the London Lancet. That there is electricity in the human body, can not be doubted. The writer of this knows that sparks have passed between two persons, who touched each other, in his presence. We want more facts, before we can arrive at any satisfactory theory.

LITERARY.

The celebrated Mrs. Jameson is writing some interesting articles on the Warriour Saints.

Robert Armour, the sole surviving brother of Jean Armour, wife of Robert Burns, is dead.

At Athens, a patriarch of literature, Neophytos Doukas, has died, at the age of 95. His loss is sincerely deplored by the Hellenists.

It is said that General Duvivier, one of the French officers recently in Algiers, has made a large collection of Phenician inscriptions. He is now studying and collating them; and much light it is thought will be thrown on ancient history by his decyphering and arranging them.

During the late bloody battle in the Punjaub, a Prussian Prince, Waldemar and his suite, volunteered his services, and went into the thickest of the fight. They did their share of destruction, no doubt, and saw as much as they liked of "beautiful war." But literature and science have at least this censure to pass upon the Prussian volunteer It seems he took into the action, his medical attendant, Dr. Hoffmeister, an eminent zoologist. The Doctor was unfortunately killed. We could spare any quantity of German princes, but so learned a man as Hoffmeister can not again be readily produced.

Frost's Pictorial History of the United States is much praised in the London Mirror.

Doctors Beard and Dobbin have been publishing some very able and conclusive replies to the Mythic scheme of Dr. Strauss.

We find many agreeably written books announced by the foreign publishers, but the haste with which we are compelled to take our "Glance," in consequence of the delay of the magazines in their delivery, even after they arrive in New York, forbids our examining them at this time.

FINE ARTS.

A remarkable vase of black marble, belonging to the fourth or fifth century, has been found in the city of Rome. It is four feet high and two in diameter. The ornaments are in relief, and represent the Virgin and the infant Saviour. The vase is placed in the Vatican.

Moscheles, a celebrated musician, has accepted a professorship in the Conservatoire at Leipsic. This institution will now have a trio of great composers, Moscheles, Mendelssohn, and Hauptman.

The rapid demolition of the antiquarian relics of Egyptian greatness, by the hands of Cockney travellers, has attracted the attention of the Pacha, who now interdicts the export of antiquities.

Mr. Loder, of Bath, an eminent orchestral leader, and Mr. Hawes, another musical character of note, are dead.

Iron is now extensively used in England in the manufacture of small and elegant articles of household use.

The Continental papers are full of critiques on paintings, statuary, and public buildings.

NOTICES OF NEW BOOKS.

Theology Explained and Defended, in a series of Sermons, by Timothy Dwight, S. T. D., LL. D., late President of Yale College, with a Memoir of the Life of the Author. In four large octavo volumes of nearly 600 pages each, at the remarkably low price of $6. Vol. 1. Twelfth edition. New York: Harper & Brothers, 82 Cliff street. 1846.

When a standard work on the all-important subject of Theology has passed to the twelfth edition, as is the case with these sermons of Dr. Dwight, and when the life and character of their distinguished author has obtained for him an imperishable name—surely nothing we can say, can aid in giving celebrity to what is so well known and so highly appreciated.

But Doctor Dwight was a very extraordinary man, of very extended knowledge, and enlarged philanthropy, and we quote with much pleasure the following passage from page 29 of the life of the author, to be found in the volume before us, which shows how this great man employed himself in the benevolent societies and the useful arts.

To enumerate the various literary, charitable, and pious institutions, which he was active in founding or promoting, would be a laborious employment. Some of the principal ones may be mentioned. By his exertions and influence, aided by those of distinguished men around him, "The Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences" was established. This was done in the year 1799, and the association was incorporated by the Legislature of that State in October of the same year. One of the great objects in view, was to procure a statistical account of Connecticut. This he had much at heart, and flattered himself he should be able to accomplish. For this purpose the Academy printed and distributed a list of inquiries to men of intelligence throughout the State, and to encourage and stimulate others to assist in the execution of the plan. Notwithstanding the weakness of his eyes, he wrote the account of New Haven at an early date, which the Academy afterwards published. Accounts of a few other towns were furnished by other gentlemen. But as it proved less easy than he imagined, to obtain the performance of a task attended with some labour and no profit, the business languished in hands far less occupied than his own, and the principal object never was accomplished. He was a zealous promoter of the establishment and the exertions of the Missionary Society of Connecticut. He was also one of the projectors of the Society for Foreign Missions, established in the year 1809, at Boston, Massachusetts, and, until his death, was one of its active and influential officers. He was one of the visiters at the Theological Seminary at Andover, from its commencement."

In every situation of life President Dwight was distinguished for hospitality. Notwithstanding the variety and importance of his vocations he was never unprepared to entertain strangers, or to enjoy the conversation of his friends. In fine the whole tenor of the life of this distinguished divine was a living proof that he was fully imbued with the great principles of the benign religion which it was his professional duty to enforce; and whether we contemplate him as the teacher or friend of mankind, he was alike worthy of the pure and exalted character which he has left as a rich inheritance to his descendants, and an honour and lasting benefit to his country.

The Founders of New York, being the Anniversary Address delivered at the Lyceum on the 5th of December, 1845, *before the St. Nicholas Society, by J. De Peyster Ogden.* New York: Published by JOHN ALLEN, 139 Nassau street. 1846.

Societies to perpetuate reminiscences of the original settlers of particular portions of countries, are useful everywhere, and in many ways; and nowhere is their usefulness more apparent than in the United States; as producing distinctive characteristics of those who, in our variously peopled districts as colonies, have undoubtedly left a marked difference in the state of society which exists in each. Independently, therefore, of their value as charitable institutions, which are always promotive of benevolence, and good feeling, such societies add a value to our stock of historical knowledge, enabling us to account for many differences of customs and manners, which would otherwise be matters of speculation and doubt.

We have been more than usually struck with the force of these views, by a careful perusal of this address of Mr. Ogden, giving us an account so clear and interesting of many of the incidents connected with the early settlement of this State by our Dutch ancestry. Well does the orator say, that "history is not as prolific in details respecting this colony as its importance deserved." This deficiency he has in part supplied, by giving a succinct account of the facts connected with the views, the feelings, and characteristics of the first settlers of the colony of New Amsterdam. We quote from page 9 of the pamphlet, where justice is very appropriately done to the clear and exalted views of political freedom possessed by the colonists at a very early day after the settlement was made:

"There is on record a proud and convincing proof that the inhabitants of New Amsterdam belonged to a race of men who knew the value, and were resolved to enjoy the rights, of civil liberty: that they fully appreciated and understood their own privileges, as well as the end and object of civil government." * * * As a proof of this, the orator goes on to state, that, from causes of discontent which we have not space to enumerate, they called a convention, which adopted a remonstrance, in which the following clear views were incorporated:

"We acknowledge a paternal government, which God and nature have established in the world for the maintenance of peace and the welfare of man, not only according to the laws of nature, but according to the law and precepts of God. We settled here on a mutual contract and agreement with the lord patroons; with the consent of the natives, who were the first proprietors of the lands, and of whom we purchased the soil at our own expense." * * * "Our apprehension is to see an arbitrary government established, contrary to the first intention and general principles of every well regulated government. In our humble opinion it is one of our privileges, that in making new laws, our explicit consent, or that of our representatives, is unavoidably required for their adoption."

"These" says the orator, "were noble sentiments," and we fully agree with him; they were indeed not only such sentiments—they were more—they were sound and solid principles—and reflect immortal honour upon those from whom they emanated.

We commend the whole of this address to our readers, as replete with high-toned sentiment and interesting facts, and we regret we have not room for further extracts which, while they would disseminate a knowledge highly creditable to the first settlers of New York would show, that he who boasts his descent from the Knickerbocker portion of them, may well feel a just pride in so industrious and intelligent an ancestry.

Narrative of Remarkable Criminal Trials, translated from the German of Anselm Ritter Von Freerbach, by Lady Duff Gordon. New York: HARPER & BROTHERS, 82 Cliff street. 1846.

This is a selection of fourteen remarkable cases of capital crimes, selected from the German author above named, who was for many years president of the highest criminal court of Bavaria, and who had chiefly formed the criminal code of the country. It appears that the motive for translating and publishing these cases, was to show the difference of the mode of treating crime and criminals in Bavaria from that practised in England. The translator says: "I have selected those trials which appear to me to possess the greatest general interest, and, in obedience to the suggestions contained in a most interesting article in the Edinburgh Review, I have abridged them to half their original length. I hope that I have, nevertheless, succeeded in preserving the main outline of every trial, filled up with just so much of detail as will serve to give a literally faithful picture of crimes common to all nations, treated in a manner widely differing from our own."

Whiley & Putnam's Library of Choice Reading.

No. 58. *Notes of a Journey from Corn Hill to Grand Cairo, by way of Lisbon, Athens, Constantinople, and Jerusalem, performed in the steamers of the Peninsular and Oriental Company. By Mr. M. A. Titmarsh, author of the Irish Sketch Book, &c.* New York: WILEY & PUTNAM, 161 Broadway. 1846.

With only thirty-six hours to prepare for it, Mr. Titmarsh accepted the invitation of Mr. James to undertake this journey. The whole time occupied was the space between 23d of July and the 27th of October, and in this short space the writer saw Lisbon, Cadiz, Gibraltar, Malaga, Athens, Smyrna, Constantinople, Jerusalem, Cairo—and, although it is really wonderful to think of the possibility of such locomotion, it is still more so, to read the book, and find how much the author observed in this flying visit. To give some idea of the author's easy and pleasant style, we make the following quotation of his summary in conclusion. "Who can forget the Bosphorus, the brightest and fairest scene in all the world, or the towering lines of Gibraltar; or the great piles of Mafra, as we rode into the Tagus. As I write this, and think, back comes Rhodes with its old towers and artillery, and that wonderful atmosphere—that astonishing blue sea which environs the island. The Arab riders go pacing over the plains of Sharon, in the rosy twilight, just before sunrise; and I can see the ghastly Moab mountains, with the Dead Sea gleaming before them, from the mosque, on the way towards Bethany. The black, gilded trees of Gethsemane lie at the foot of Olivet, and the yellow ramparts of the city rise up, on the stormy hills beyond!". Although the author may literally be said to have paid a flying visit, he saw and has described scenes which will repay a perusal.

No. 59, *of the same series, offers to the reader the rich Table Talk of William Hazlett—Opinions on Books, Men, and Things. In Two Parts. Second Series. Part Second.* New York: WILEY & PUTNAM, 161 Broadway. 1846.

The name and character of Hazlett and his writings are so well known, and so justly appreciated, for their lively and animated style and varied character, that we need only state what subjects are treated of in this volume, to insure a desire to read them.

It commences with No. 20—On the Spirit of Monarchy. 21—The Vatican. 22—On Milton's Sonnets. 23—Coffee-house Politicians. 24—On the Aristocracy of Letters. 25—On Criticism. 26—On Great and Little Things. 27—On Familiar Style. 28—On Effeminacy of Character. 29—Whether Authors ought to Sit in the Boxes. 30—On the Disadvantages of Intellectual Superiority. 31—On Patronage and Puffing. 32—The Picturesque and Ideal. 33—The Main Chance. 34—On Reason and Imagination. 35—On Respectable People. 36—On Novelty and Familiarity.

Journey to Ararat, by Dr. Frederick Parrot, Professor of Natural Philosophy in the University of Dorpat, Imperial Councillor of State, Knight of the Order of St. Anne, etc., translated by W. D. Cooley. New York: HARPER & BROTHERS, publishers, 82 Cliff street. 1846.

This account of a journey to the resting place of Neah's Ark is one of much character and interest. Character from the high standing of the scientific gentlemen by whom it was performed, and interest, from the portion of the globe through which they travelled. The account it gives us of the Nomad and Tartar life, of which so little is known, cannot fail to gratify the reader, to say nothing of the very extraordinary ascent to the highest summit of one of the most lofty mountains in the world, and so celebrated as constituting the spot upon which the second parents of mankind were permitted to find a place of safety. We think we cannot better show the effect it is calculated to produce, than by giving to our readers the following quotations from page 191. "We passed, without stopping, over a couple of hills; there we felt the mountain wind; I pressed forward round a projecting mound of snow, and behold! before my eyes, now intoxicated with joy, lay the exteme cone, the highest pinnacle of Ararat. Still, a last effort was required of us to ascend a tract of ice, by means of steps, and that accomplished, about a quarter past 3, on the 27th September, (9th of October, new style,) 1829, we stood on the top of Ararat! !

"What I first aimed at and enjoyed, was rest; I spread out my cloak, and sat down on it. I found myself on a gently vaulted, nearly cruciform surface, of about two hundred paces in circuit, which at the margin sloped off precipitously on every side, but particularly towards the southeast and northeast. Formed of eternal ice, without rock or stone to interrupt its continuity, it was the austere, silvery head of old Ararat!"

A First Latin Book, by Thomas Kerchever Arnold, M. A., Rector of London, and late Fellow of Trinity College, Cambridge; carefully revised and corrected by Rev. J. A. Spencer, A. M., from the fifth London edition. New York: D. Appleton & Co., 200 Broadway. Philadelphia: G. S. Appleton, 148 Chesnut street. Cincinnati: Derby, Bradley & Co., 113 Main street. 1846.

The preface to this work tells the reader that "The valuable introductory, now presented to the American public, is the first of a series of classical school books, on the basis of Ollendorff's much and justly-admired system. Imitation and frequent repetition—which are the means by which every child learns his own language—are herein constantly acted upon; and the intelligent pupil is led by natural, and therefore easy steps, into an acquaintance with the structure and many of the peculiarities of the language of the old Romans."

It appears to have gone through five editions, and to be recommended by the Oxford Diocesan Board of Education; and, from a careful examination of the plan, if any thing we could say could add to testimony of this high authority in its favour, we should say, a pupil desirous of becoming acquainted with the language in which Virgil, Horace, and Ovid, have delighted mankind, could not do better than to study well this first book of Dr. Arnold. This mode of following nature has been very successful in acquiring the more modern and living languages, and we can see no reason why it is not well adapted, as a very useful auxiliary, to an acquaintance with the Latin.

The Farmers' Dictionary: A Vocabulary of the Technical Terms recently introduced into Agriculture and Horticultare from Various Sciences, and also a Compendium of Practical Farming; the latter chiefly from the works of the Rev. W. L. Rham, Loudon, Low, and Youatt, and the most eminent American Authors. Edited by D. P. Gardner, M. D., Honorary Member of several Agricultural Societies; with numerous Illustrations. New York: Harper & Brothers, 82 Cliff street. 1846.

At this particular juncture, when Agriculture, as a science, has commenced to attract so much attention as is now giving to it in the United States, such a work as the one before us, must be received with the highest satisfaction.

Many valuable and important treatises from abroad, and many weekly and monthly journals at home, are usefully disseminating vast funds of information on the all-important subject of Agriculture—and when it is considered that eighty per cent. of our population are either actually employed in it, or dependant upon it for their support, we should think a dictionary of all the new terms that science is imparting to it, must claim an extensive demand. We pretend to no knowledge of the science of agriculture, but on looking over the Dictionary, we find a vast variety and fund of knowledge, which to those interested must be invaluable, and the well-known name of Dr. Gardner stamps it at once as authentic.

A Grammar of the Latin Language, by C. G. Zumpt, Ph. D., Professor of the University, and Member of the Royal Academy of Berlin. From the ninth edition of the Original; adapted to the use of English Students, by Leonard Schmitz, Ph. D., late of the University of Bonn. Corrected and enlarged by Charles Anthon, LL. D., Professor of the Greek and Latin Languages in Columbia College, New York, and Rector of the Grammar School. New York: Harper & Brothers, 82 Cliff street. 1846.

In looking over this work, we are much struck with the vast improvement that has been made in late years in Grammars of all kinds; and, as far as we are capable of judging, this is one of the very best we have seen. But one in whose judgement we most fully confide, thus speaks of it in his short preface, and, after such a recommendation from so high a source, nothing further is required, to place its merits fully before the public. In giving, therefore, the following extract from Dr. Anthon's preface, we feel that nothing further need be said: "The editor conceives that he is rendering an important service to the American student in the re-publication of the present work. Its excellence is acknowledged by all European scholars, and now that it has received the last touches from the hand of its learned author, we may confidently regard it as the best work on the subject of the Latin Grammar in the English language. The Syntax in particular will be found exceedingly valuable, and this part of the volume alone would be sufficient to render the work an invaluable aid to the young scholar."

Elements of Drawing and Mensuration, applied to the Mechanic Arts, a book for the instruction and use of practical men, by Charles Davies, LL. D., author of First Lessons in Arithmetic, Elementary Algebra, Elements of Surveying, Geometry, Shades, Shadows, and Perspective, Analytical Geometry, Differential and Integral Calculus. New York: Published by S. A. Barnes, & Co., 57 John street. 1846.

The work is divided into seven books, and each book is divided into sections.

Book 1. The properties of geometrical figures are explained by questions and illustrations.

Book 2 The construction and use of the various scales are explained, and also the construction of geometrical figures.

Book 3. Treats of drawing, of its elements, of topographical drawing, and of plain drawing.

Book 4. Is on architecture, explaining by drawings the different orders.

Book 5. The application of the principles of geometry in mensuration.

Book 6. The application of the preceding parts to artificers' work.

Book 7. An introduction to mechanics.

The whole is well arranged, and must prove very useful to the mechanical student, combining theory and practice in a very plain and clear manner.

No. 14. *Pocket Editions of Select Novels, without abridgement.* 25 *cts. each.* *Guy Rivers, a Tale of Georgia, by W. Gilmore Simms, two volumes in one.* New York: Harper & Brothers, 82 Cliff street. 1846.

Of course this is a reprint, in the pocket form, of this work, which has been for some time before the public, and, so far as we are informed, has been favourably received. For those who desire such reading, this book is published in very good type and paper, and abundantly cheap.

No. 15. Of the same edition of select novels, of course at the same remarkably low price, is the Young Duke, "a moral tale though gay," by D'Israeli, also two volumes in one. Harper & Brothers, 82 Cliff street.

This is also a reprint of a well known work, from an author of much celebrity.

The Fairy Book, illustrated with eighty-one cuts by Adams. Harper & Brothers, New York.

This is indeed a splendid book, printed on very fine paper, in a beautiful, clear type, and the cuts are admirable.

It is long since we have seen a book of fairy tales, and certainly, albeit they have latterly gone much out of vogue, and stories of fairies and fairy lands gain little credence in the present matter of fact days; still are they of very good moral tendency, beautifully written, and if any one entertains prejudices against them because they are fictions, to him we would say, read the introduction to this edition, and then you will see a defence of these now offered to the public, which, unless you are incorrigible, will disarm you of all prejudice. We remember with pleasure the delight with which we listened to them in infantile years, and are not conscious that they have had any tendency to make us less attached to the moral conveyed in works of a graver character, or less to value experiences in the realities of after life.

A Phrase Book, in English and German, with a literal Translation of the German into English, arranged on the plan of a dictionary, together with a Complete Explanation of the Sounds and the Accentuation of the German, by Moritz Ertheiler. Third Edition. New York: Greeley & M'Elrath, Tribune Buildings; Eichthal & Bernard, office of the Deutsche Schnellpost. Philadelphia: Zieber & Co., Ledger Buildings. 1846. *Price* 25 *cents.*

The learner is here furnished with a large collection of common and useful English and colloquial phrases, in alphabetical order, so arranged as to illustrate various expressions in the German translation of the English sentences, in which the same words are employed in different significations. This is a good plan, and the Phrase Book will prove very useful to persons commencing to acquire a knowledge of the German language.

A Practical Grammar of the English Language, adapted to the use of all classes of learners, in which are contained, in numerous instances, theoretical and practical refutations of the most prevailing systems of grammar in modern use, by Joseph W. Wright, C. E. Fourth edition, revised and enlarged.

> "No man can do justice to his own conceptions, who is incapable of speaking and writing in his language with perspicuity."—BLAIR.

New York: Published by RICHARD BARNARD, & Co. Sold by Crocker & Brewster, Boston; Hogan & Thompson, Philadelphia; Cushing & Brothers, Baltimore; F. Taylor, Washington; Norman Steele, & Co., New Orleans; and by all other booksellers.

We think this book one of deep research and much acumen. Mr. Wright well understands the subject on which he treats, and has presented to the public, in this work, a treatise on English grammar, more full and complete than any we have seen. His examination and correction of the many imperfections, which have grown into use under the sanction of great names, do him much credit. The English language is at best but a very imperfect one. We have, however, no hesitation in saying that a strict attention to the philosophical investigations which this work contains is calculated to do essential service, and to give precision to a chaste and accurate mode of speaking and writing English, which we have nowhere else seen so clearly and distinctly put forth. It has given us many new views, and caused us to feel a lively interest in the success of a work every way worthy of public patronage.

The Mount Vernon Arithmetic, Part First, Elementary, by Jacob Abbott, and Charles E. Abbott.

> "Few rules and a great deal of practice; that is the true key to the acquisition of knowledge."

New York: SAXTON & MILES, 205 Broadway. Philadelphia: JAMES M. CAMPBELL. Boston: SAXTON & KELT. 1846.

We have looked this through, and are very much pleased with its plan and execution. The exercises are all simple and pleasing, and, commencing with numeration and notation, advance so gradually as to excite the emulation of the learner to go one step further, of such easy ascent, that it can be achieved without difficulty. We have seen no first book of arithmetic so well calculated to advance a child in its first rudiments.

We find on our table a volume of a periodical, we should have been glad to have been before acquainted with. It is Vol. 3d of the

New York Farmer & Mechanic—devoted to Agriculture, Mechanics, Manufactures, and the Arts; embellished with numerous engravings; Samuel Fleet, Editor. Published monthly. Price one dollar per volume, of 400 *pages.* New Yotk: W. H. STARR, 135 Nassau street. 1845.

We cheerfully recognise in this work a congenial spirit and coadjutor in the good cause of home interests. We have looked it through with great pleasure and improvement—it is, we feel satisfied, aiding in the dissemination of valuable knowledge to the farmer, mechanic, and artisan, and has our very best wishes for its abundant success.

Part XII, in Monthly Parts. Price 50 *cents.*

A Dictionary of Practical Medicine, comprising General Pathology, the Nature and Treatment of Diseases, Morbid Structures, &c., by James Copeland, M. D., F. R. S.; edited, with Additions, by Charles A. Lee, M. D. Contents of Part XII: Hysteria, Jaundice, Ichthyosis, Impetiginous Affections, Impotence and Sterility, Indigestion, Induration, Infection, Inflammation. New York: published by HARPER & BROTHERS, No. 82 Cliff street. 1846.

Not being of the profession, we profess not to judge of the manner in which this work is conducted, but we notice it for general information, and doubt not, that to those who are acquainted with its author and editor, sufficient motives will be found to induce them properly to appreciate its value.

THE

NATIONAL MAGAZINE

AND

Industrial Record.

VOL. II. NEW YORK, MAY, 1846. No. XII.

RUSSIA—ITS INDUSTRY AND COMMERCE.

In carrying out our design of giving an account of the industry, commerce, and present state of some foreign country, as the leading article in each number of our work, we now propose to take up Russia in that connexion, and must not omit to state, in so doing, that our limited space proves more embarrassing than it has done on any previous similar occasion.

The vast extent of the Russian empire, covering, as it does, immense regions in Europe, Asia, and America; its multitudinous ports and harbours, its endless variety of soil and climate, involving productions of almost every nature and kind; to do them justice would require treatises and volumes. Our readers will not, therefore, expect from us more than a general outline. This we shall endeavour to give in a manner that will tend to elucidate the great truth, that this large portion of the habitable globe owes its present wealth, power, and prosperity, to the mighty genius of one great mind, which, acting upon the principle that the varied industry of a people could alone give them national character and strength, did not hesitate, though himself the emperor and autocrat of this mighty nation, to apply himself personally to the acquisition of the knowledge necessary to carry out his designs. No character in modern history stands out more prominently than that of Peter the Great. He indeed seems to have been been designed by Providence to complete the great work of civilization in ancient Scythia, and to transform a rude and warlike people from abject barbarism to a fondness for the arts of peace. Literally did he cause the bow and the spear to give place to the plough and the pruning hook. Really did he substitute the hum of industry for predatory warfare and the destruction of the human race. But his doings, and the influence he exerted over the destinies of fifty millions of human beings, are too well known to require that we should dwell upon his most extraordinary character—though perhaps few of us, of the present day, can properly appreciate the effect produced upon the whole family of mankind, by his truly magnanimous and enlightened policy. We indeed witness the wonderful changes he wrought in the destiny of his own vast empire; but who that is now living can tell what would have been the condition of the contiguous portions of the globe, had Russia remained sunk in that barbarism from which she was disenthralled by the skill and genius of her great sovereign and benefactor. But we must not occupy further space in recording our views of the character of this great man; we shall, therefore, commence, and with what acumen we can muster, cull from the mass of history and statistical knowledge within our reach, such a succinct account of the internal industry and commerce of the Russian empire, as will tend more fully to show what it once was, and what is its present prosperous condition.

COMMERCE OF RUSSIA.

The present immense territory known under the general name of Russia, has been greatly extended since the middle of the sixteenth century. It is conjectured that the aborigines of this vast tract of land were the immediate descendants of Magog, second son of Japheth; and that they settled here very shortly after the dispersion from Babel, where they were gradually divided into tribes, each distinguished by a particular name, but still retaining their general appellation, until it was changed by the Romans into that of Scythians. Rurick was Grand Duke of Novgorod, in the year 882, which is the earliest authentic account of this country. In 981, Woladimer was the first Christian king. Audrey I. began his reign in 1156, and laid the foundation of Moscow. In or about the year 1200 the Mogul Tartars conquered Russia, and held it in subjection till 1540, when John Basilowitz restored it to independence, and, about the middle of the sixteenth century, discovered and conquered Siberia.

This monarch then took the title of Czar, signifying a great king, and drove the Tartars clear out of his dominions. This event is said to have taken place about the year 1554.

We find little said of Russia, as having any commerce, till the year 1558, when she conquered Narva, in Livonia, and thereby gained an opening into the Baltic Sea, and it was thereupon erected into an emporium, or staple port for the trade of Russia with most of the rest of Europe. The Hanseatics hereupon removed their trade from Revel, where it had been fixed since the Moscovites had barbarously driven them from Novgorod.

It was in the year 1571, that the savage fierceness of John Basilowitz, induced his nobles, though Christians, to call in the Khan of Crim Tartary, a Mahometan, who not only ravaged a great part of Russia, but burned down the capital city of Moscow, then, according to Puffendorf, containing one hundred and eighty thousand houses, though almost all of timber.

In the year 1590, the province, Samoieda, the most northerly part of the continent, was brought under the Russian monarchy, the country of Siberia, lying south of Samoieda, having been discovered and reduced by the Russians about this time; and it has since been greatly improved, considerably increasing the Russian revenue, not only from their very fine furs, but from their iron works, sturgeon, salmon, &c., &c., which add greatly to the internal commerce of Russia.

The passage round the North Cape having been discovered in 1554, a trade between England and Holland with Russia was commenced, so that that in 1603 there were as many as thirty Dutch ships in the trade, while England had but three or four. In 1654, Oliver Cromwell sent a Mr. William Prideau as a messenger to Russia, who went by way of Archangel. This messenger went to Moscow, was well received, but the British were allowed to trade only upon condition of returning immediately home.

We come now to the period at which one of the most extraordinary men that ever sat on a throne became Czar of Russia. Peter the Great ascended the throne of Russia in the year 1682.

This great sovereign is too well known to need much eulogy from us. Indeed, our space will not permit more than the single notice in that regard, of the extraordinary fact that he visited England in 1697, and worked in the dockyard at Deptford, to acquire a knowledge of shipbuilding. He founded the city of St. Petersburg, on the Neva, in 1703. In 1714, 16 ships arrived there, which in 1730 had increased to 180; and so rapid has been the progress of commerce and civilization in Russia, since that period, that at present upwards of 1,500 ships annually enter and clear at St. Petersburg.

The Russian empire is divided into two great parts by the Ural Mountains, which, on the north, separate Asiatic from European Russia. At present the empire of Russia includes the greater part of the ancient kingdom of Poland, Finland, and the isles of Aland, &c., which formerly belonged to Sweden; the ancient kingdom of Astracan and Kazan, conquered from the Tartars; the Crimea, Little Tartary, Bessarabia, and a portion of Moldavia, taken from the Ottoman empire; the encroachments over the regions of the Caucasus, on the possessions of the natives, and on the dominions of Turkey and Persia; that vast region extending from the confines of Europe to the Pacific and to Behring's Straits, and north from the confines of Persia and Tartary to the Arctic Circle; also a great and undefined extent of country along the northwest coast of America. It occupies, altogether, even a greater portion of the surface of the globe than the vast but widely spread British empire.

The natural resources of a territory of such varied climates, and soils, are, as will be readily seen, of immense importance. The severity of the climate in its most northerly parts precludes cultivation; and, except in the most southerly provinces, the frost is, in winter, very severe, and locks up the seas, rivers, and lakes, in icy fetters, from two to seven months. Russia, nevertheless, comprises vast plains and great valleys, which are eminently favourable to the cultivation of all kinds of green and white crops, and to the breeding of horses, cattle, and other domestic animals. The numerous forests of Russia produce the most valuable timber of many kinds. Their iron and copper mines are abundant, and the ore is of the very best quality. Gold, silver, platinum, antimony, cobalt, quicksilver, precious stones, marble, and malachite are found, some of which are in great quantities.

Russia has several of the largest rivers in Europe and Asia flowing through her dominions; and the internal navigation of the empire has been unlocked, and the Caspian, Baltic, and the White Sea, have, since the beginning of the reign of Peter the Great, been actually united, by the completion of a vast chain of canals for that purpose. Fish abound in great quantities in all these rivers and lakes.

There are in the empire about thirty good seaports, but most of them are obstructed by ice for several months. Archangel is, indeed, shut up for eight months in the year. It is, nevertheless, an outlet, by the Dwina, for the products of a very extensive region, yielding wheat, timber, and hemp; and it is, also, an inlet for articles required in that region of foreign production.

The Baltic seaports of Russia being also frozen up for some months, their armed fleets would be paralyzed as to entering or leaving their own ports, were not the Black Sea open to them through the Dardanelles.

For the navigation of the Pacific Ocean, the harbours of Russia on the coast of Asia, and on the northwest coast of America, are eminently convenient, and for some time past of great consequence.

Russia can procure by land, from Persia and India, all articles that she requires in addition to her own natural resources. All the great elements of agriculture and manufuctures, as well as of internal power, she possesses.

The seaports of Russia in the Baltic, are: Riga, at the mouth of the Dwina, which has but shallow water at the town; large ships, therefore, load and unload some miles below: Revel, in the Gulf of Finland, is an intricate harbour: Arensburg, on the north side of the Isle of Oesel, is spacious, but shallow; the road where large ships anchor is deep: Cronstadt, or the harbour of St. Petersburg, and the great naval arsenal of Russia, is deep and safe: vessels drawing more than eight feet water cannot ascend to St. Petersburg, which is six leagues above Cronstadt: Helsingford, in Finland, is one of the best ports in the Baltic: Abo, in Finland, is shallow at the town. All these ports, with several other smaller harbours, are locked up by frost for at least three months annually. Archangel is the only port of consequence on the White Sea. Large ships have to load and unload without the bar, over which there is no more than twelve feet water.

The seaports of Russia on the Black Sea, are: the ports of Ismail and Kilia, in Bessarabia, on the Danube, by which great outlet and inlet ships ascend to Kilia from the sea: Ackermann, Ovidopol, at the mouth of the Dniester: Odessa, in the province of Kherson, is, with its road, safe and commodious for the largest ships, and is of the utmost importance to Russia: Nickolav, also in Kherson, is safe and deep, and although the town was only founded in 1791, it is now a naval arsenal of great consequence: Kherson is a small port near the former: Sevastopol is a good port on the Crimea, strongly fortified, and the principal rendezvous of the Russian navy. Kaffa, or Feodosia, is a small port, within a large bay, in the province of Taurida. The vast importance of these ports to Russia, consists chiefly in their open communication at all seasons with the ocean, by way of the Dardanelles.

On the Sea of Asoph, which has no deep harbours, the best port is Taganrog, which admits only vessels drawing less than eleven feet of water. It is often frozen up for about two months in the year.

On the Caspian, Russia has the convenient port of Astracan, which forms the principal entrepot between St. Petersburg and the nations south of the empire. The little port of Derbent, and several others, on the the Caspian, belong also to Russia. The rivers falling into the Caspian and Black Seas, and those discharging into the Baltic and White Seas, with numerous large lakes, opening an internal navigation, extended and connected by canals, are of extraordinary importance to all parts of the empire.

In Asiatic Russia are several unimportant harbours; first, the port of Okhotsk, in 59° north lattitude, with a commodious and deep road, but subject to violent tides and gales from the east, in November. Okhotsk, which is the great entrepot for whatever goes or comes through Kamtschatka, and the chief point of communication between Russia and her possessions in America. Sixteen degrees further south, is the small but safe harbour of St. Peter and St. Paul. It is frozen up for about two months. By the ports of Okhotsk, and St. Peter and St. Paul, Russia commands an uninterrupted intercourse from St. Petersburg and Moscow, across the whole empire, to the Pacific, and to the west coast of America. Russia communicates, also, down the Volga to Astracan; and thence by the Caspian Sea to Persia and Turkestan; and down the Pruth and Danube, and down the Dniester, Dnieper, and Don, and other rivers, to the Black Sea; and thence to Turkey, Asia Minor, Circassia, Georgia.

The Russian territory in the northwest of America has innumerable harbours; but there is only one establishment of any great consequence, that of New Archangel, or Sitka; this port is excellent, strongly fortified, and has a dockyard, and an active fishery and fur trade. It is frozen up some weeks during winter. The resources of Russian America are very important in fisheries, furs, &c.

We have thus given as full an account as our space will permit, of the origin and progress of Russia, and a view of the principal ports, points, and harbours of this vast empire, from which its immense internal and external trade are carried on.

We shall now commence with a statistical table of its area, population, and great divisions.

STATISTICS.

Area, Population, and Great Divisions of the Russian Empire.

DIVISIONS.	Square Miles.	Population	Inhabitants to Square Mile.
Russia in Europe,	1,499,000	52,575,000	35 0
Province of Warsaw,	36,700	3,900,000	106 0
In Asia,	4,000,000	3,600,000	0 89
In America,	370,000	500,000	0 89
Total,	5,915,700	60,575,000	10 24

The reader may perhaps acquire a better idea of the vast extent of the Russian Empire, when he is informed that it includes nearly one-seventh of the territorial part of the globe, and about one twenty-seventh part of its entire surface. But by far the greater proportion of this prodigious region is almost uninhabited—a consequence partly of the extreme rigor of the climate in the provinces contiguous to the Arctic Ocean, and partly by all the great rivers by which they are traversed, having their entrance in that ocean, and being, therefore, inaccessible for the whole or greater part of the year.

Provinces, Area, Population, Chief Towns, &c., of the Russian Empire.

		GOVERNMENTS OR PROVINCES.	Superfices in square miles.	POPULATION.		CAPITALS.	Geographical Position.				Distances in English miles from St. Petersburg.	Natural Aspect and Resources.
				In 1825.	On the 1st of January, 1837.		N. Lat.		E. Long.			
							d.	m.	d.	m		
Asiatic Russia.		Kamtschatka,	250,000	....	3,823,000	East Cape,	67	0	185	0		This portion of the empire embraces every variety of the climate and soil of the temperate and frozen regions. Verdant hills and dales, lakes, rivers, dark forests, bleak plains, mountains, rocks, mines, snow, and ice.
						Nijne Khamtschatsk,	57	0	161	0		
	Siberia	Irkoutsk,	1,250,000	210,000		Okhotsk,	59	20	142	44		
						Kiatka,	50	20	106	30		
						Irkoutsk,	52	17	103	30	3,994	
		Tomsk,	225,000	215,000		Tomsk,	56	30	84	10	2,930	
						Omsk,	55	4	74	54	2,490	
		Tobolsk,	55,000	439,000		Tobolski,	58	12	68	15	2,035	
		Georgia,	150,000	220,000		Tophilis,	42	45	62	40		
		Astracan,	450,000	190,000		Astracan, 50,0000,	46	21	47	44	1,428	
		Caucasia,	375,000	110,000		Gourier,	47	8	52	30	1,540	
						Geogieffsk, Ouralsk,	52	11	52	6		
		Don Cossacks,	48,300	130,000	370,000	Nova Tskerkask,	47	14	39	50	1,291	
		Orenburg,	112,000	875,000	1,044,000	Orskaia,	51	39	58	0		Generally a level country, with forests, rivers, and savannahs.
						Orenburg,	51	46	52	31		
						Verkhouralsk,	53	40	58	0		
						Oufa,	54	42	56	18		
Plains of the Volga.		Saratov,	112,700	1,064,700	1,334,000	Saratov,	51	31	46	0	1,066	
						Zaritszyn,	48	42	44	28		
		Simbirsk,	30,000	924,730	1,119,000	Simbirsk,	54	22	48	34	990	
		Kazan,	22,000	937,800	1,028,000	Kasau,	55	48	49	21	1,034	
		Nijnei-Novgorod,	20,400	1,035,800	1,380,000	Lower Novgorod,	56	20	41	29	784	
		Penza,	16,500	878,670	1,035,000	Penza,	53	30	45	39	927	
		Tambov,	21,000	1,287,630	1,422,000	Tamboff, 12,000,	52	44	41	45	803	
		Perm,	116,000	1,128,240	1,270,000	Perm,	58	1	56	26	1,424	Nearly all Russia west of the Oural mountains, is low, much of it occupied by vast savannahs and pine forests.
Northern Russia.		Viatka,	47 000	1,136,970	1,294,000	Viatka,	57	25	54	15	827	
		Vologda,	149,000	657,800	802,000	Vologda,	59	13	41	11	771	
		Archangel,	356,000	175,000	263,000	Archangel, 15,000,	64	40	38	56	763	
		Olonetz,	87,500	267,600	360,000	Petrosavadok,	61	47	34	24	304	
		Finland,	145,750	985,000	1,350,000	Abo,	60	28	22	7		
		Petersburg,	18,000	728,000	845,000	Petersburg, 420,000,	50	56	30	19		
		Novgorod,	55,000	976,700	916,000	Novgorod,	58	32	31	20	123	
		Pskov,	22,000	712,500	865,600	Pskov,	57	38	27	52	217	
		Twer	24,100	1,175,640	1,261,000	Twer, 20,000,	56	52	35	57	376	
		Smolensk,	21,400	1,063,800	1,326,000	Smolensk,	54	50	31	57	477	
		Total, carried forward,	4,179,650	17,545,560	23,107,600							

Provinces, Area, Population, Chief Towns, &c., of the Russian Empire—CONTINUED.

	GOVERNMENTS OR PROVINCES.	Superficies in square miles.	POPULATION.		CAPITALS.	Geographical Position.				Distance in English miles from St. Petersburg.	Natural Aspect and Resources.
			In 1825.	On the 1st of January, 1827.		N. Lat.		E. Long.			
						d.	m.	d.	m.		
	Amount brought forward,	4,179,650	17,545,580	23,107,600							
Central Russia.	Kostroma,	38,400	1,138,640	1,456,000	Costroma,	57	45	41	13	602	Nearly all Russia west of the Oural mountains, is low, much of it occupied by vast savannahs and pine forests.
	Vladimir,	29,700	920,000	1,335,000	Vladimir,	....		....		602	
	Jaroslau,	14,000	867,370	1,038,000	Jaroslau,	57	37	45	10	493	
	Moscow,	10,300	1,322,600	1,338,000	Moscow, 250,000,	55	46	37	33	484	
	Riazan,	13,000	1,048,240	1,309,000	Resan,	54	55	40	37	617	
	Toula,	12,000	1,063,700	1,040 000	Tula,	54	11	37	2	606	
	Kaluga,	8,500	872,500	1,175,000	Kaluga,	54	3	36	5	593	
	Orel,	16,000	1,132,300	1,300,000	Orel,	53	0	35	20	731	
	Voroneje,	31,000	1,175,000	1,446,000	Voroneje,	51	40	39	21	813	
	Kursk,	15,000	1,312,200	1 649,000	Coursk,	51	43	36	28	816	
Formerly part of Poland.	MARITIME PROVINCES, Esthonie,	10,275	252,350	303,000	Revel, 15,000,	59	27	24	39	229	Undulated, but generally low, many portions very fertile, others swampy, or covered with fir forests.
	Livonie,	21 370	617,500	754,000	Riga, 49,800,	56	5	24	8	368	
	Courland,	11,200	435,600	581,000	Mittau, 12,000,	56	39	23	43	401	
	Vitepsk,	20,000	765,000	935,000	Vitepsk,	55	25	30	20	459	
	Mohilow,	18.500	815,600	945,000	Mohileff,	53	50	31	40	564	
	Tchernigov,	28,700	842,850	1,410,000	Czernigov,	51	20	32	13		
	LITHUANIA, Wilna,	38,500	950,000	1,357,000	Wilna, 25,000,	54	41	25	17	623	
	Minsk,	37,500	875,000	1,160,000	Minsk,	53	43	28	40	605	
	Grodno,	11,000	625,000	868,000	Grodno,	53	40	23	50	723	
	Bialystock,	14,700	160.000	225,000	Belostock,	52	2	22	30	829	
	Volhynia,	29,309	1,250,000	1,496,000	Zytomiera,	50	16	28	30		
	The UKRAINE, Charcov,	18,700	910,000	914,000	Charcoff,	50	0	36	27	973	
	Poltava,	16,000	1,475,000	1,878,000	Pultowa,	49	30	34	14	947	
	Kiou,	22,500	1,250,000	1,472,000	Kieff, 40,000,	50	27	30	28	857	
	Podolio,	20,400	1,365,000	1,462,000	Camenes-Podol,	48	41	27	1	1,020	
	Warsaw,	36,700	3,900,000	3,900,000	Warsaw,						
	Ecaterinoslaw,	35,000	565,000	626,000	Taganrog, 7,800,	47	13	38	39	1,269	These are among the most valuable and fertile portions of the empire.
					Jocatharinoslaw,	48	27	33	2	1,082	
	Kherson,	36,500	450,000	459,000	Kherson, 10,000,	46	38	32	56	1,200	
					Odessa, 41,552,	46	29	30	38		
	Bessarabia,	16,000	150,000	600,000	Akermann, 15,000,	46	8	31	14		
	Taurida,	42,900	335,000	346,000	Keatsch Jenicol,	45	21	36	25	1,429	
	Russian America,	370,000	500,000	500,000	Feodosia, or Kaffa,	45	6	35	13	1,366	
					Simferopol,	45	12	34	8	1,458	
	Total,	5,222,995	46,878,030	58,584,000							

The authorities for the above table are, Malte-Brun, Journal of the Société Française de Statistique Universelle, and Géographie vôn Europa, by the Baron Von Malchus. The population for 1827 is chiefly taken from Balbi, whose table nearly agrees with that given in the German Almanack, published (1832) at Weimar. It can only, however, be considered a computation with others, which have been calculated in respect to superficies, according to geographical boundaries, as laid down in the most approved maps.

Imports from Russia into the United States, for the year ending 30th June, 1844.

Copper, in pigs and bars,..................	$600	Sail duck,..................................	$157,475
All other articles free of duty,............	108,790	Cotton bagging, of hemp,................	1,459
Articles made of wool,.....................	18	Distilled spirits,..........................	155
Manufactures of cotton,....................	1,329	Bristles,....................................	40,676
Flax manufactured into linens, bleached, and others,.............................	100.511	Cordage, tarred, and cables,.............	53,460
Other articles paying duty ad valorem, do.,	581	Twine and packthread, ...	131
Sheetings, brown and white,..............	29,274	Hemp,......................................	211,185
Other articles,............................	39,181	Flax, unmanufactured,....................	19,405
Matting and mats,.........................	300	Glass bottles, ...	90
Leather, not specified,....................	12	Sheet and hoop iron, ...	64,720
China and porcelain,......................	8	Scrap iron, ...	32
Furs, undressed, on the skin,............	75	Tanned and dressed skins,...............	8
Hats, caps, and muffs, ...	230	Bar iron, ...	107,302
Articles not enumerated, paying duty from 1 to 35 per cent.,.......................	122,062	Other articles not enumerated,..........	217
			$1,059,419

Exports to Russia from the United States, for the year ending 30th June, 1844.

Whalebone, ...	$2,310	Tobacco, ...	$3,759
Spermaceti candles..........................	30	Household furniture,.......	867
Boards, plank, and scantling,..............	230	Lead, ...	39,233
Oak bark and other dye,....................	5,506	All manufactures of iron, or of iron and steel,....................................	55,294
Skins and furs,............................	9,870		
Cheese, ...	380	Twist, yarn, and other thread,...........	1,700
Rice, ...	53,475	Articles not enumerated,..................	755
Cotton, ...	241,454		
Amount of domestic exports, ...			$414,882
Foreign exports,..			140,532
Total exports to Russia, ...			$555,414

The following account of the products and trade of Russia, and a defence of her high tariff system, is taken from an official paper, published in the State Gazette of St. Petersburg, in 1835:

"We are aware of the attacks to which, both at home and abroad, our commercial and custom-house regulations have been subjected. Several writers, especially those of periodical works, have *kindly* laboured to prove that they retard and injure the prosperity of Russia.

Our enlightened government has adopted this system, not in following visionary theories, but in studying the essential interests of the empire, and have accordingly persevered in sustaining and in strengthening it; whilst those by whom it is attacked, show either that they are uninformed as to the true interests of Russia, that they seek their own at the expense of our interests, or, indeed, that they fear the prosperity of our country. Facts only can disabuse persons thus prejudiced against our commercial and custom-house system. These facts shall be furnished from the results of our commerce for a fixed period, where the system in question has had time to develope itself, compared with periods which preceded. They are supplied by official documents, from 1824 to 1834, compared with the ten years from 1814 to 1824.

Importations.

From 1824 to 1834, the value of foreign merchandise imported into Russia, amounted to	1,951,844,619	rubles.[*]
From 1814 to 1824, it amounted to	1,646,904,710	"
Increase,	304,939,909	"
The customs produced from 1824 to 1834,	673,339,401	rubles.
" " from 1814 to 1824,	396,126,285	"
Increase,	277,213,115	"

In the last ten years, scarcely one has passed without events which have been injurious to the commerce of the empire.

In 1824, a dreadful inundation of St. Petersburg rendered it necessary to afford such indulgences as injured the revenue of the customs 3,894,322 rubles.

In 1826 and 1827, the war with Persia suspended all commerce with the Caspian Sea, and with the southern provinces of Caucasus.

In 1828 and 1829, the war with Turkey arrested all commerce by the Black Sea, the Sea of Asoph, and in Bessarabia.

In 1829, 1830 and 1831, the irruption of the cholera into different provinces of the empire, greatly interfered, as well with external commerce as with that of the interiour.

In 1831 and 1832, the war with Poland, and the trouble since with the governments of the West, caused a cessation of all commercial affairs with those countries.

Finally, in 1833, a failure of crops in several of the governments diminished the exports of grain, and consequently the demand for foreign merchandise.

This exposé shows :

First. That the imports have increased 300,000,000 of rubles, *and consist principally of articles necessary for our manufactures.* Among those articles, the import of silk, alone, has decreased, because that which was received from abroad was in part replaced from silk received from within the Caucasus. In general, other articles have been doubled.

Second. The number of manufacturing establishments has increased almost one-fourth, without counting the extension of those which previously existed, and the workshops erected by the peasants of the villages.

Third. Our exports have increased 125,000,000 of rubles. Among these, hemp shows a diminution, which is in part replaced by the increased export of yarns, cables, and cordages. It is principally in tallow, flax, wool, leather, and even grain, that the augmentation is perceptible, notwithstanding the great progress which agriculture has made in other parts of Europe and in the United States.

Fourth. Finally, the number of vessels arrived in ballast in our ports, has been 5,000 ; the value of bills to bearer has advanced ten per cent. ; the public funds have experienced nearly an equal rise ; the course, *even of assignats*, has improved ; the customs have produced an increase of 277,000,000 of rubles. What, then, are the conclusions to be drawn from this exposé of our commercial and custom-house system ? The principal and the most important are :

1. *That the system has not impoverished Russia ;* for if she can pay

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[*] A silver ruble is 100 copecs. The value of the silver ruble was fixed in 1839 by imperial ukase at 3s. 1½d. sterling, or about 76 cents; the paper ruble, at same time, at 10¾d. sterling, or about 22 cents.

300,000,000 of rubles for foreign articles (which are not of indispensable necessity) more than she paid for the preceding ten years, she has certainly found means to convert into capital her own surplus.

2. *The comfort and happiness of the people generally have made rapid progress.* Every one knows that if, long before the introduction of the present system, the higher classes were accustomed to the uses of articles of luxury, (composed principally of imported goods,) an increase so considerable in the importation of such merchandise can only be caused by the inferiour classes. Daily experience confirms this.

3. The increase in the importation of articles to sustain our manufactures produces great economy of capital, and very considerable advantage; for if foreigners employed those articles to manufacture goods for us, the price of purchase would necessarily augment, since, independently of the raw material, we should have to pay for the workmanship. Now the sums paid for materials benefit Russian operatives, and supply them not only with the means of paying their taxes, but for improving their condition. Let it be added, that their employment in manufactures, checks those irregular habits in which the operatives would be tempted to indulge in our long winters, when the works of agriculture are suspended, and thus has a salutary effect on morals.

4. Our system of commerce is not injurious to agriculture; for notwithstanding the reproaches made to us by those who know not Russia, who assure us that her prosperity depends upon her devotedness to agriculture alone, the exportation of its produce has augmented. To judge of this by the tallow, the leather, the wool, which has been exported from Russia, the produce of our pastures has surpassed all expectation, whilst that of manufactures advances regularly in its progress.

5. The formalities of our custom-houses are not so vexatious as foreigners profess to believe. If these complaints were well founded, foreign vessels would not voluntarily enter our ports, especially those in ballast. Now, on the contrary, 5,000 vessels in ballast for the last, more than for the preceding ten years, have entered our ports, exporting our products, and animating our commerce and industry.

6. Although the rates of bills to bearer, and those of assignats and of public funds, have improved, this result inadequately presents the importance of those which flow from commerce and manufactures. But we must contemplate the difficult circumstances in which Russia was placed during the last ten years: three considerable wars, the cholera, and finally a famine! Similar circumstances have, in other countries, been most extensively felt; with us their influence has been comparatively weak. Can there be a stronger proof of the solidity of our credit?

7. Finally, the great increase of revenue from our customs, whilst filling our treasury, has been productive of general advantage; for, after having supplied government with the means of defraying an important part of the indispensable expenses of the empire, it has given to it the power, without augmentation of taxes, to alleviate the condition of the industrious poor on one hand, and on the other to cause those to participate in the public expenses who are exempt from direct taxes. It is thus, that the tariffs of Russia have a double advantage, that of encouraging internal industry, and of imposing a charge as just as it is imperceptible for those who have to pay it, and of whom the collection is alike easy and uncostly.

From all these facts, the general and certain conclusion may be drawn, that the present system secures to the empire great and certain advantages, which completely justify the measures taken by the government to sustain and strengthen it."

The following further facts, to strengthen the ground above, are taken from a Russian official source, lately published in French, at St. Petersburg:

The import trade of Russia, at two different periods, will not be without interest. We have compared the average rate of the years 1793, 1794, 1795, to the same in the years 1837, 1838, 1839.

Annual Imports.

			1793 to 1795.	1837 to 1839.
1.	Sugar,	poods,	341,356	1,675,806
2.	Coffee,	"	74,811	119,164
3.	Tea,	"	69,975	201,797
4.	Wines,	ends,	4,658,430	13,276,625
5.	Rum, arrack, brandy,			371,236
6.	Oil of olives,	poods,	42,239	345,455
7.	Machines and instruments,	silver rubles,	111,300	1,025,264
8.	Cloth,	" "	3,978,000	570,000
9.	Raw cotton,	poods,	10,000	315,000
10.	Twilled cotton,	"	50,000	600,000
11.	Cotton tissues,	silver rubles,	2,600,000	3,866,000

☞ A pood is equal to 36 pounds avoirdupois.

1. *Sugar.*—In the first of these epochs the quantities imported were principally refined sugar, the number of refineries in Russia being at that period very limited. In the second epoch the imports were entirely of raw sugars. It is seen that the consumption has augmented in very rapid progression. At the present time it is stronger even than it was thought, according to the import table, as about 125,000 poods must be added of red beet sugar, annually produced by Southern Russia.

3. *Tea.*—We have, in the first column above, (in default of the quantity of the years 1793 and 1795,) produced that of 1800. The consumption of this article is at present three times that quantity. That of the wine four times, and that of the oil eight times as great as at the end of the last century.

7. *Machines.*—During the first of the two epochs here spoken of, Russia imported from abroad but instruments of small dimensions. It is only since about twenty years that she has begun to import machines for the use of the fabrics and manufactures.

8. *Cloth.*—Until a very recent period, the fabrics and manufactures of Russia limited themselves to the sole manufacture of cloth for the army; exceptions were very seldom, and they were of such very little importance that it is not worth while to think of them. It was, therefore, necessary to import cloth of a better quality, not only for the interiour of the country, but for exportation to Asia. Fifteen years has completely changed this state of things; our manufactures have made such progress that the necessity of importing cloth for the interiour consumption of the country has nearly ceased, and only cloth which is manufactured in Russia is now exported to Asia, and particularly to China. This article amounts yearly to 2,000,000 silver rubles, in the tables of our trade with the Oriental countries.

9—11. *Raw and Twisted Cottons, Cotton Tissues.*—Thanks to our thread and cotton manufactures, established in the environs of Moscow and in the bordering governments; the importation has increased since forty years in proportion as 1 to 12 of twisted cottons; that of cotton increased in proportion even as 1 to 32, and yet the importation of cotton manufactures has still increased, although in a progression less sensible. But although Russia still imports cotton tissues from Europe, it exports annually to the amount of 2,000,000 rubles to Asia, which could not have taken place at the end of the last century.

It is thus seen that the importation of colonial provisions has augmented, as well as the first necessary materials and machines for our fabrics. If the augmentation which has taken place in the importation of these latter articles is a proof, not equivocal, of the immense developments which the national industry has acquired since some time, the increase which is remarked in the consumption of provisions arriving from America or China can only be attributed to the increase of national wealth; as we must conclude that the number of persons whose resources will allow a similar luxury, have increased in a very sensible proportion. It is principally the comparative importance of the trade of cotton manufactures and of cotton, at the two epochs here spoken of, that we think it worth while to bring under the consideration of our readers. It has been seen in our day, (although the manufactures established in the country absorb annually nearly 1,000,000 of poods of cotton, twisted or raw,) the importation has become more considerable than it had been when there were neither thread manufactories nor cloth manufactories: the consumption, then, in forty years, must have augmented prodigiously.

Including some articles too unimportant to be here remarked separately, the value of the importation has amounted annually, during the first of these epochs, to 27,886,000 silver rubles. During the second, to 61,756,000 silver rubles. The total value of the custom-house duties has also increased in like manner, so as to present, at the present period, four times as much as in 1800.

In 1790, the year of the decennial epoch from 1788 to 1798, which gave results the most advantageous, the duties had not exceeded a total of 6,958,291 silver rubles. In 1840, they amounted to 26,572,000 silver rubles.

In 1816, the number of ships which arrived in all ports of Russia, was 3,977; sailed, 3,800. In 1817, there arrived 6,099; sailed, 6,457. In 1816, the total declared value of imports was 172,706,053 rubles; of exports, 205,015,016 rubles.

In 1817, the total declared value of imports was 254,065,841 rubles; of exports, 285,090,651 rubles.

In 1816, the revenue of customs was 27,917,684 rubles; in 1817, it was 37,440,528.

RUSSIAN TARIFF.

Russia may be said to prohibit the importation of every material like those which can be drawn by her labour from her mines and forests; and of every manufactured article, in order that, with the aid of machinery, either imported or made in the country, and generally directed by foreign artisans, Russia shall be made to produce either similar to, or that may be substituted for, those of foreign countries.

For the purpose of supplying and carrying on her manufactures, she permits the importation of mathematical, optical, astromomical, and agricultural implements, newly invented machinery, and models of machines, mules, &c., required in the arts.

Cotton twist, still required by her, and sheep's wool, with several other articles, are admitted at low rates of duties.

On examination of the prohibitions abolished by the new tariff of 1841, where there has been any relaxation, the duties are so high as to preclude any profitable, legitimate importation of manufactured goods from England or elsewhere.

RUSSIAN MANUFACTURES.

The manufacturing industry of Russia, under the wise system of protection, has greatly increased during the last five years.

The following table shows their state in 1824. No doubt they have greatly increased since; but we have no official returns of a later date.

Statement of the number of Manufactures throughout the Russian Empire, in the years 1812, 1816, 1820, 1824:

DESCRIPTION OF FABRICS.	1812.	1816.	1820.	1824.
Cloth manufactures,	136	235	304	324
Silk do.	105	158	159	184
Hat do.	25	41	77	79
Leather tanneries,	1,150	1,530	1,726	1,784
Soap and candles, melting-house and wax bleacheries,	181	410	755	1,023
Oil cloth manufactories,	2	2	1	2
Linen do.	170	216	196	214
Paper mills,	56	74	87	87
Dyeing mills,	18	25	52	66
Cotton do.	129	423	440	484
Rope and spinning yards,	48	102	95	98
Potash manufactories,	6	31	122	218
Tobacco do.	0	6	24	35
Snuff-box do.	3	6	8	7
Japan ware do.	1	5	1	7
Sugar refineries,	30	51	33	47
Powder and pomatum manufactories,	2	2	2	1
Vinegar and aqua fortis do.	10	18	20	23
Lace and do.	13	24	23	21
Colour do.	13	27	29	28
Sealing-wax do.	3	7	6	7
Chemicals and saltpetre do.	31	22	36	71
Steel, iron, and needle do.	33	75	88	170
Crystal and glass do.	131	155	152	164
Porcelain and earthenware do.	9	30	38	45
Copper foundries and button manufactories,	22	59	71	104
Total,	2,327	3,734	4,550	5,286

RUSSIAN MINES AND MINERALS.

The Ural Mountains and Liberia are the principal regions of Russian mineralogy; though old Russia and Poland have also mines of iron and coal, &c. As far back as 1596, the Czar, Ivan Vasselivitch, granted an English company the privilege of mining and smelting ore near Moscow, on condition of paying the Czar one farthing per pound, and of teaching the Russians the art of making iron. The Siberian iron mines were first worked in 1703, and in 1726 about 25,000 tons of bar iron were made in the government of Perm.

The Uralian Altaic Nertschinskeeo, yield iron, copper, silver, &c. In the year 1779, there were 100 smelting furnaces in the Uralian Mountains, 34 of which were for copper, the remainder for iron. About 80,000 tons of iron were produced annually, in the years 1790 to 1794. During the latter year the proprietors complained of great distress, *and received aid from Government.*

Copper abounds most plentifully in the governments of Olonetz, and in the Ural and Altaic chains. Above 60,000 tons are annually stated to be extracted from these mines.

The lead mines of Kholevan and Nertschinsk, yield about 12,000 tons annually.

The salt mines of Hetsk, in Orenburg, yield nearly 5,000 tons annually; and these, and the salt springs of Taurida, and the salt lagoons of the Black Sea, yield annually above 250,000 tons of salt. Salt is, nevertheless, imported into the Russian Baltic ports, from England, and into Poland and the Ukraine, from the Austrian salt mines of Wielieska.

Mr. Oddy states "that the exportation of iron from Russia after the year 1784, but particularly since 1794, has been upon the decline; for the last year the export to Great Britain was not a third part of any of the previous three years. In the year 1784, the whole export from Archangel and the Baltic was about 50,000 tons, of which Great Britain alone took above 40,000; and in the year 1781, she imported 50,000 tons from St. Petersburg alone; whilst the whole exportation from thence for the last four years was, on the the average, only about 40,000 tons, of which Great Britain has taken 30,000, and in 1834 only 5,848 tons.

Gold has been found in considerable quantities in Russia. The first mine of this valuable metal was discovered in the mountains of Olmetz, in 1739, and one of silver, in 1704. Many other discoveries have been made of gold and silver mines, which are worked; but the most considerable is that of Kholevan, which had been worked by Demedoff, the rich Russian iron master, from its discovery till 1745, when the crown took possession of it. The whole of the native produce of Russia has been estimated at

Gold, about..............................	42,675	pounds weight.
Silver....................................	1,564,750	" "

In the Uralian Mountains alone, there were, twenty-five years ago, sixty smelting houses, which produced 6,200,000 pounds weight. The whole annual produce of the empire has been about 7,350,000 lbs. weight; but as the produce of the mines is decreasing, the whole cannot be reckoned, at the present time, more than 7,000,000 lbs., which is chiefly coined for circulation.

The whole quantity of iron shipped from Russia in 1793, was as under:

PLACES.	IRON.		ARTICLES.	IRON.	
	rubles.	rubles.		poods.	rubles.
St. Petersburg, .	4,745,648		Bar iron,...........	2,503,757	4,255,228
Riga,..........	122,236		Assorted iron,...····	491,575	901,464
Wiburg,........	4,571		Plate iron, and cast iron goods,.......	37,917	44,433
Revel,.........	3,000				
Fredericksham,	83	4,875,538			
Archangel,.....	183,070	183,070		3,033,249	5,204,125
Taganrog, ...	111,838				
Kherson,.......	13,254		Assorted iron is only exported from St. Petersburg, Riga, and Archangel.		
Theodosia, ...	12,490				
Eupatoria,.....	7,740				
Otchakoff, ...	150				
Yenicale,......	54	145,517			
	....	5,204,125			

The exportation of iron throughout the whole empire in 1802, amounted to 4,617,989 rubles.—*Oddy's European Trade.*

About 54,000 miners are stated to be now annually employed in the Ural and Siberian iron mines; which, together with the iron mines of Altai and Veldai, are said to yield about 170,000 tons per annum. Iron is also found in the Caucasus. Wood only is used in smelting in Russia.

Antimony, cobalt, mercury, zinc, &c., abound in Siberia, and spelter in Poland. An official account, published in the Journal of the Minister of the Interiour for April, 1839, gives a most glowing account of the mines and forges of that kingdom, and of the rock-salt mines of Cochochink, in Plask. There were smelted in 1833, about 3,000 tons iron. In 1836, about 5,000 tons. The coal mines are also described as capable of being profitably worked, but the quantity produced annually, is as yet comparatively very trifling.

The following is a statement of the produce of the Polish mines for 1833 and 1836, and the estimated produce for 1840, as stated in that Report:

ARTICLES.	1833.	1836.	1840.
	poods.	poods.	poods.
Zinc,	78,620	168,250	250,000
Tole and zinc,	13,407	48,750	
Iron,	28,000	127,000	625,000

Account of the Produce of the Russian Mines in 1830 *and* 1831:

	1830.		1831.			1830.		1831.	
GOLD:	pds.	lbs.	pds.	lbs.	COPPER:	pds.	lbs.	pds.	lbs.
From the Crown mines,	150	22	156	30	Crown mines,	41,000	0	41,000	0
From private ditto,	204	17	200	26	Private ditto,	183,883	21	188,507	11
Poods,	354	39	357	16	Poods,	224,883	21	229,507	11
Pounds avoirdupois,	12,780		12,896		Pounds Avoirdupois,	7,655,807		8,122,262	
PLATINA:					IRON:				
From the Crown mines,	4	15	4	0	Crown mines,	378,698	20	377,771	28
From private ditto,	100	25	107	4	Private ditto,	6,468,449	34	5,456,026	36*
Poods,	105	0	111	4	Poods,	6,847,148	14	5,833,798	24
Pounds avoirdupois,	3,781		4,099		Pounds avoirdupois,	246,498,343		210,016,753	

* In this account the report from the Moscow mine corps is not included, as it had not been received; the quantity for 1831 may, therefore, be fairly taken as nearly equal to that of the preceding year. There is some tin and lead found, but the amount is most trifling.

9 lbs. English equal to 10 Russ. A pood contains 40 lbs. Russ, equal to 36 English.

We cannot conclude this account of the Trade of Russia, without publishing the following official document from the Russian Prime Minister, by which it will appear, that, in accordance with the treaty of Vienna, a relaxation of the restrictive system, by which the industry of Russia was protected, took place in December, 1818, and that it produced its invariable results. " Agriculture was without a market, industry was without protection, and languished and declined." But let the Minister speak for himself in the following remarks on the Russian tariff of 1822:

REMARKS ON THE RUSSIAN TARIFF OF 1822, BY THE THEN PRIME MINISTER OF RUSSIA.

A new tariff of duties payable on foreign merchandise, will be published in the empire, and new commercial regulations will take place of those which were established in 1820.

The regulations which appeared in 1820, were the result of a treaty concluded the 7th–19th of December, 1819, with the court of Berlin, after protracted negotiations, when all the efforts of Russia had for their object to put in execution the principles of commercial freedom consecrated by the acts of a Congress of Vienna.

The Russian government was far from being ignorant then, that these principles might become as favorable in their application as they were just in theory; but what appeared beyond doubt, was, that to produce happy effects they must be generally adopted: and the State which adopts whilst the others reject them, must condemn its own industry and commerce to pay a ruinous tribute to those of other nations.

The necessity of giving commercial relations a more free scope had been felt at Vienna, in 1815, in proportion to the complaints which the whole continent had made, against the oppression under which commerce had groaned for nearly ten years. It was, therefore, from a circulation exempt from restraint, and the facility afforded by reciprocal exchanges, that almost all the governments at first resolved to seek the means of repairing the evil which Europe had been doomed to suffer; but experience and more correct calculations, because they were made from certain data, and the results already known of the peace that had just taken place, forced them soon to adhere to the prohibitory system. England preserved hers; Austria remained faithful to the rule she had laid down, to guard herself against the rivalship of foreign industry, France, with the same views, adopted the most vigorous measures of precaution, and Russia published a new tariff in October last, which proves that she found it impossible not to follow the example of the rest of Europe.

In proportion as the prohibitory system is extended and rendered perfect in other countries, that State which pursues the contrary system makes, from day to day, sacrifices more extensive and more considerable.

It opens its ports to all foreign productions, and all ports are shut against the articles it was in the habit of exporting. It offers a continual encouragement to the manufactures of other countries, and its own manufactures perish in the struggle which they are yet unable to maintain.

It is with the most lively feelings of regret, we acknowledge it is our own proper experience which enables us to trace this picture.

The evils which it details have been realized in Russia and Poland since the conclusion of the Act of 7th–19th of December, 1818. Agriculture without a market, industry without protection, languish and decline; specie is exported, and the most solid commercial houses are shaken. The public property would feel the wound inflicted on private fortunes, if new regulations did not promptly change the actual state of affairs.

In a few months after the Act of the 7th–19th of December had gone into operation, numerous reports pointed out its consequences to his imperial majesty, and even then all its disadvantages could be foreseen. But the emperor would not yield to those representations. He desired to try the new system for a longer period, for he was particularly, and above all things, desirous that the reproach of leaving his engagements unfulfilled should not attach to him. Moreover, he still flattered himself that less disastrous years might compensate for the losses our trade had experienced at the first moment of the crisis.

And it is only after those losses have reached their height; after events have proved that our agriculture and our commerce, as well as our manufacturing industry, are not only paralyzed, but brought to the brink of ruin, that his imperial majesty formed the resolution, to come, with that spirit of frankness and confidence which presides over the relations of the allied monarchs, to an explanation with the court of Berlin. He expressed the whole truth to the king of Prussia, and did not disguise that the Act of 7th–19th of December, 1818, had merely been ratified by him, in order to show that Russia never neglected any means to fulfil the obligations which the treaties of Vienna imposed upon her.

We cannot be reproached with having gone too far with the prohibitory system in regard to foreign industry. The actual state of our own has been our rule in that respect. To protect the industry of the country already in existence, to encourage establishments which may be formed with greater advantages, to proportion the duties to the want we feel of the objects on which they are payable, and according to the quantity of those objects which Russia does or can produce within herself, to prevent smuggling by laws justly severe—such are the principles which the Minister of Finance has adopted—such is the classification he has introduced—such is finally the end he proposes to himself.

St. Petersburg, March 23, 1822.

CONVENTION BETWEEN RUSSIA AND THE UNITED STATES.

As the present excitement about Oregon makes every thing respecting the Northwest Coast of America of importance, we here insert the Convention between the Russian Government and our own, on the subject of the rights of the parties in that region.

Act 1st. It is agreed, that in any part of the great ocean, commonly called the Pacific Ocean, or South Sea, the respective citizens or subjects of the high contracting powers shall be neither disturbed nor restrained, either in navigation or in fishing, or in the power of resorting to the coasts, upon points which may not already have been occupied, for the purpose of trading with the natives, saving always the conditions and restrictions determined by the following article.

2nd. With a view of preventing the rights of navigation and fishing, exercised upon the great ocean, by the citizens and subjects of the high contracting parties, from becoming the pretext for an illicit trade, it is agreed that the citizens of the United States shall not resort to any port where there is a Russian establishment, without the permission of the governor or commander, and that, reciprocally, the subjects of Russia shall not resort, without permission, to any establishment of the United States, upon the Northwest Coast.

3d. It is moreover agreed, that hereafter there shall not be founded, by the citizens of the United States, or under the authority of the said States, any establishment upon the Northwest Coast of America, nor in any of the islands adjacent, to the north of fifty-four degrees and forty minutes of north lattitude; and that, in the same manner, there shall be none by Russian subjects, or under the authority of Russia, south of the same parallel.

4th. It is nevertheless understood, that during a term of ten years, counting from the signature of the present convention, the ships of both powers, or which belong to their citizens or subjects respectively, may reciprocally frequent, without any hindrance whatever, the interiour seas, gulfs, harbours, and creeks, upon the coast mentioned in the preceding article, for the purpose of trading with the natives of the country.

5th. All spirituous liquors, fire arms, or other arms, powder, and munitions of war of every kind, are always excepted from the same commerce permitted by the preceding article; and the two powers engage reciprocally, neither to sell, nor suffer them to be sold, to the natives, by their respective citizens and subjects, nor by any person who may be under their authority. It is likewise stipulated that this restriction shall never afford a pretext, nor be advanced in any case, to authorize either search or detention of the vessel, seizure of the merchandise, or in fine, any measure of constraint whatever, towards the merchant or the crews who may carry on this commerce. The high contracting powers reciprocally reserving to themselves to determine upon the penalties to be incurred, and to inflict the punishment, in case of the contravention of this article by their respective citizens or subjects.

Signed at St. Petersburg, the 17th–5th of April, 1824.

FURTHER RUSSIAN GENERAL STATISTICS.

Value of Merchandise Imported into, and Exported from, Russia, in the year 1835.

COUNTRIES.	Value of Imports.	Value of Exports.
European and American.	£	£
Sweden and Norway,	183,602.	154,630
Prussia,	[illegible]11,952	492,328
Denmark,	66,260	238,651
The Sound,	....	78,679
Hanse Towns,	1,155,633	268,518
Holland,	313,087	449,202
Great Britain,	3,122,025	3,950,335
France,	631,660	362,289
Spain and Portugal,	201,796	142,126
Italy,	205,167	150,440
Austria,	507,061	479,174
Turkey,	504,314	1,004,314
America,	1,159,623	578,978
Other countries,	11,281	209,195
Asiatic.		
Turkey,	44,714	37,423
Persia,	293,169	100,595
Khiva,	30,590	17,719
Kirghise,	175,250	182,072
Bokhara,	105,675	47,309
Tashkent,	41,154	
Kokhant,	15,800	36,232
China,	320,573	324,946
Other countries,	1,092	67,314
Total,	9,591,498	9,364,076

	1830.	1836.	1837.
Total exports,	76,824,969 rbls.	81,070,924 rbls.	75,767,188 rbls.
Total imports,	56,318,668 "	67,786,058 "	71,930,622 "

Number and Tonnage of Vessels with Cargoes and in Ballast, which entered and cleared at the Ports of Russia in the year 1830, *and in each year from* 1836 *to* 1839.

	Years.	With Cargoes.		In Ballast.		TOTAL.	
		No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.	No.	Tons.
ENTERED.	1830,	2,311	341,612	3,583	645,658	5,894	986,270
	1836,	2,402	409,160	2,188	406,402	4,590	815,562
	1837,	2,464	417,216	2,796	521,342	5,260	938,558
	1838,	2,433	224,464	3,568	650,338	6,001	1,078,802
	1839,	2,496	429,214	4,192	792,166	6,688	1,221,380
CLEARED.	1830,	6,001	1,015,112	127	14,632	6,128	1,029,744*
	1836,	4,395	789,572	291	44,277	4,686	833,846
	1837,	5,032	893,520	243	43,806	5,275	937,326
	1838,	5,783	1,030,148	114	20,482	5,897	1,050,632
	1839,	6,275	1,025,642	307	57,994	6,582	1,184,636†

* Of these vessels 657, of 89,858 tons, were Russian.
† Of these vessels 1,051, of 165,980 tons, were Russian.

Official Account of the Russian Trade and Commerce in 1841, *as compared with the ten preceding years.*

The following has been the value in silver rubles of the import and export trade of Russia during the year 1841: viz—

EXPORTATION—	Value of Exports.		
To Foreign countries,	86,382,179	rubles.	
Finland,	1,349,192	"	
Poland,	2,034,739	"	
Total,	89,766,110	"	= £14,480,017
	Value of Imports.		
To Foreign countries,	79,429,490	rubles.	
Finland,	554,558	"	
Poland,	820,541	"	
Total,	80,801,569	"	= £13,032,191
Balance in favour of Russia,	8,964,521	"	1,445,890

During the three undermentioned years the total value of exports from Russia has been as follows:

	1838.	1839.	1840.	
To Foreign countries,	85,718,930	94,857,788	82,731,386	rubles.
Finland,	1,118,815	829,076	992,217	"
Poland,	2,741,022	1,998,744	1,914,285	"
Total,	89,578,767	97,685,337	85,637,888	"
" sterling,	£14,448,188	£15,755,699	£13,812,562	"

The above variations in value will appear less striking, if we deduct from them the value of the corn and flour exported in each of the three years, which was—

			Total Value.		
In 1830:	Wheat,	3,946,821 tchetvs.,	18,738,616	sil. rubles	= £3,021,551
	Flour, &c.,	471,887 rubles,			
In 1836:	Wheat,	1,677,039 tchetvs.,	7,285,128	"	1,175,020
	Flour, &c.,	394,179 rubles,			
In 1837:	Wheat,	2,685,807 tchetvs.,	11,122,850	"	1,794,000
	Flour, &c.,	610,882 rubles,			
In 1838:	Wheat,	3,269,543 tchetvs.,	15,156,678	"	2,444,625
	Flour, &c.,	661,199 rubles,			

			Total Value.		
In 1839:	Wheat,	4,754,743 tchetvs.,	25,217,027	sil. rubles =	£4,067,262
	Flour, &c.,	1,038,134 rubles,			
In 1840:	Wheat,	1,411,497 tchetvs.,	14,026,415	"	2,262,325
	Flour, &c.,	1,068,457 rubles,			
In 1841:	Wheat,	1,765,236 tchetvs.,	10,382,509	"	1,674,598
	Flour, &c.,	785,482 rubles,			

During the years from 1830 to 1841, both inclusive, the leading exports, from Russia to foreign countries, of raw produce and manufactures, have been as follows:

1. Brandy, fish, (salted and fresh,) meat, fruits, honey, &c.

	Value.		Value.
In 1830,	1,070,020	rubles =	£172,583
1836,	1,256,950	"	202,733
1837,	1,191,610	"	192,195
1838,	1,023,475	"	165,076
1839,	1,107,723	"	178,666
1840,	970,564	"	156,542
1841,	1,108,603	"	178,807

2. Cattle, skins, feathers, bark, &c.

In 1830,	2,029,895	rubles =	£327,402
1836,	3,708,726	"	598,181
1837,	3,313,976	"	534,512
1838,	3,313,976	"	534,512
1839,	3,686,338	"	594,570
1840,	3,167,902	"	510,952
1841,	4,359,709	"	703,178

3. Raw Produce—such as flax and hemp, flax and hemp seed, oil, tallow, hides raw, wool, bristles, wood for building and cabinetmakers' use, metals, &c.

In 1830,	44,928,111	rubles =	£7,246,469
1836,	57,927,472	"	9,665,721
1837,	49,545,569	"	7,991,220
1838,	59,326,075	"	9,568,721
1839,	58,183,63[illegible]	"	9,384,457
1840,	57,133,0[illegible]	"	9,215,013
1841,	59,773,354	"	9,640,863

4. Products of Russian Factories—viz, cloths, cordage, woollen and cotton stuffs, wax and tallow candles, soap, and cloths, exported to China, &c.

In 1830,	4,998,611	rubles =	£806,227
1836,	6,846,128	"	1,104,214
1837,	6,180,564	"	996,865
1838,	6,527,220	"	1,052,777
1839,	6,501,046	"	1,048,555
1840,	7,226,973	"	1,165,640
1841,	10,259,209	"	1,654,711

To the above figures may be added the value of merchandise passed in transit, of which was exported,

In 1830,	566,735	rubles =	£91,409
1836,	384,568	"	62,027
1837,	292,072	"	47,108
1838,	176,474	"	28,463
1839,	212,006	"	34,194
1840,	206,447	"	33,298
1841,	298,795	"	80,450

It may be remarked, that the apparent insignificance of this branch of Russian commerce, as compared with what it formerly has been, may be accounted for, by the great progress which the woollen and cotton manufactures of Russia have lately made: this trade is consequently now almost reduced to the transit of skins and furs, which are imported by the Russo-American Company from the northwest of America, to be afterwards exported to China.

The *total* value of the export trade of Russia, with foreign countries—deducting therefrom the value of the exports of corn and grain—will consequently stand thus during the undermentioned years: viz—

In 1830,	58,091,339	rubles =	£9,369,570
1836,	73,785,794	"	11,900,934
1837,	64,415,767	"	10,389,640
1838,	70,562,252	"	11,381,008
1839,	69,640,761	"	11,232,380
1840,	68,704,971	"	11,081,445
1841,	75,999,670	"	12,258,011

IMPORTATION.

The import trade of Russia, during the year 1841, when compared with the *three* preceding years, offers the following results:

I.—Articles of Food—such as rice, sugar, (raw excepted,) coffee, tea, oil, wine, and foreign fruits.

	Value.			
In 1830,	12,952,102	rbls. =	£2,089,048	sterling.
1836,	16,137,484	"	2,692,820	"
1837,	16,542,083	"	2,668,078	"
1838,	16,691,889	"	2,692,240	"
1839,	17,842,473	"	2,877,818	"
1840,	21,793,832	"	3,515,134	"
1841,	26,766,363	"	4,317,155	"

II.—Raw Sugar (which may be separately viewed as an article of the first necessity for use in the Russian sugar refineries.)

	Poods.	Value.			
In 1830,	1,347,400	9,465,332	rbls. =	£1,527,311	sterling.
1836,	1,367,674	7,892,086	"	1,272,594	"
1837,	1,798,303	9,727,669	"	1,565,753	"
1838,	1,634,908	8,448,720	"	1,362,700	"
1839,	1,594,207	7,076,657	"	1,141,396	"
1840,	1,810,869	7,835,387	"	1,262,772	"
1841,	1,714,394	6,935,494	"	1,118,628	"

III.—Various Merchandise—pearls and precious stones, books and engravings, furs, horses and cattle, imported from Asia.

	Value.			
In 1830,	2,124,126	rbls. =	£ 342,600	sterling.
1836,	4,022,883	"	648,852	"
1837,	4,385,309	"	708,920	"
1838,	4,275,142	"	689,539	"
1839,	4,533,905	"	731,275	"
1840,	4,558,514	"	735,247	"
1841,	5,555,286	"	896,013	"

IV.—Articles, the Produce of Foreign Manufactories—viz, silks, and cotton and woollen stuffs, &c.

	Value.			
In 1830,	10,270,594	rbls. =	£1,656,545	sterling.
1836,	11,304,482	"	1,823,303	"
1837,	12,683,316	"	2,045,696	"
1838,	12,971,806	"	2,092,226	"
1839,	13,449,745	"	2,169,313	"
1840,	15,205,472	"	2,452,495	"
1841,	14,874,286	"	2,399,078	"

V.—Raw Materials to be used in Russian Manufactories—viz, cotton raw, and cotton yarns, raw silk, dyestuffs, &c.

	Value.		
In 1830,	18,699,995 rbls. =	£3,016,128	sterling.
1836,	27,449,054 "	4,427,266	"
1837,	27,332,116 "	4,408,405	"
1838,	27,306,267 "	4,404,204	"
1839,	27,090,809 "	4,369,484	"
1840,	27,332,387 "	4,408,449	"
1841,	25,298,061 "	4,080,332	"

In the total of importations for the last year, may be reckoned—raw cotton, 314,000 poods; cotton yarn, 560,799 poods; 11,224 poods of raw silk; and 26,380 poods of wool; as well as dyestuffs to a value of 5,771,013 silver rubles.

The total value of merchandise imported from foreign countries into Russia, during the undermentioned years, was—

	Value.		
In 1830,	56,316,668 rbls. =	£9,038,655	sterling.
1836,	67,786,058 "	10,933,073	"
1837,	71,930,622 "	11,601,713	"
1838,	69,693,824 "	11,240,939	"
1839,	69,993,589 "	11,289,288	"
1840,	76,726,111 "	12,407,437	"
1841,	79,429,490 "	12,811,208	"

The imports of bullion are not included in the above returns, but in 1841, the value of that exported amounted to 4,023,728 rubles; and the imports of the same, to 9,347,867 rubles.

Wool Trade.

The quantities of wool exported from Russia, have been as follows during the undermentioned periods: viz—

		Poods.
From 1800 to 1813,	average amount exported,	19,713
1814 to 1823,	"	35,173
1824 to 1833,	"	111,546
1834 to 1837,	"	300,100
1838 to 1841,	"	375,680

Or in detail,

	EXPORTED.	IMPORTED.	
	Poods.	By European Frontier.	By Asiatic Frontier.
In 1822,	18,856,	unknown.	unknown.
1823,	18,243,	13,235	95
1824,	34,355,	18,703	3
1825,	117,706,	3,388	372
1826,	63,292,	10,726	323
1827,	87,811,	11,047	651
1828,	38,038,	3,652	359
1829,	23,444,	5,289	788
1830,	94,672,	8,019	505
1831,	166,573,	2,715	85
In 1832,	196,899	4,459	1,372
1833,	297,937	2,339	4,801
1834,	281,450	2,067	12,451
1835,	341,799	3,406	5,199
1836,	320,025	1,494	3,241
1837,	257,127	3,136	4,958
1438,	363,219	3,201	5,628
1839,	412,802	6,161	6,065
1840,	290,521	7,408	4,595
1841,	436,181	8,791	9,031

It was not until 1831, that the exportation of wool became an object of great importance; previously to that year, (with the exception of 1825,) the quantities exported did not reach 100,000 poods. Since 1831, the increased exportation has been most rapid, having become threefold greater in 1841, than at the former period. The value of the 436,000 poods exported in the latter year, was 4,430,000 silver rubles.

England takes annually above one-quarter of the total exports from Russian ports; and the great increase in this branch of commerce between the two countries may be seen from the following figures:

Wool Exported to England.

	Poods.
Between 1814 and 1818, an average annual quantity of.........	5,640
1833 and 1836, "	75,720
1837 and 1841, "	126,716

The exports to France and Belgium have not been at all considerable, although those to France are increasing.

The quantities sent to Prussia have been steadily augmenting, as follows:

	Poods.
Between 1833 and 1837, average quantity,.....................	4,970
In 1838, "	13,056
1839, "	23,528
1840, "	27,770
1841, "	51,417

The importation to the Austrian territories has been,

	Poods.
Between 1833 and 1836,....................................	54,286
1837 and 1841,..............	65,359

NAVIGATION IN 1841.

The general navigation has been rather less active in 1841, than during the preceding year:

	Ships with Cargoes.	Tons.
The total number of arrivals in all the ports of the empire, being	2,596	452,760
Ditto in ballast..................................	2,173	410,164
Total,......................	4,770	862,924

	Ships with Cargoes.	Tons.
The number of vessels which departed from Russian ports, during 1841, being,................................ ...	4,582	819,232
Ditto in ballast,.......................... .	312	58,046
Total,....................................	4,894	877,278

With respect to steam navigation, there have been 82 arrivals at St. Petersburg, *i. e.* from Lubec, Stockholm, London, and Havre: 27 voyages have been made in the Black Sea, between Odessa and Constantinople, as well as 54 between the former of these cities and the southern shore of the Crimea.

The coasting trade in the North Sea has been more active this year, although it has somewhat diminished in the Black Sea; in the trade of the former, 2,007 vessels have been occupied, and 5,275 in the latter.

CUSTOMS DUTIES.

	Rubles.	Cop.
Total amount of customs duties,......................	26,543,066	67
Duty on salt, from the lakes in the Crimea,............	124,981	91
Warehouse charges,................................	173,448	31
Additional duties levied in various cities,.............	545,997	99
	27,387,494	88

The expenses of collecting which, amounted to 7¼ per cent. upon the general receipt.

CULTURE OF COTTON IN INDIA.

In examining Secretary Walker's Report, in our March number, writing on the subject of the Indigo trade, which once flourished in Georgia and South Carolina, and was afterwards transferred to India by British capital, we asked the question, (which will be found at page 915,) "What will be the situation of the South, if our manufactures shall be destroyed, and England shall eventually succeed in producing cotton in India, or elsewhere, as she has succeeded in Indigo? and our Southern fellow-citizens may rest assured she will leave no stone unturned to accomplish this." We did not ask this question without a full belief in the assertion that follows it. But we were not then aware of the following facts, to their full extent, and did not, therefore, know, that recent attempts to grow cotton from American seed had proved so successful.

Let not those interested too lightly estimate this information. We extract it from the London Economist and Weekly Times, of the 14th and 21st of February last, and we think it should excite the deepest attention of those concerned, before they undertake to break down the large and increasing market for the raw material which our home manufacture of cotton is producing.

The Hon. Abbott Lawrence, in his third letter to Mr. Rives, estimates the present consumption of cotton in the United States, at 430,000 bales, of 410 pounds each, making a total of 176,300,000 pounds; and further shows, that the increase extended, from 1816 to 1845, from 11,000,000 pounds to the present amount. There is, in our opinion, no better judge than Mr. Lawrence, and he estimates that when the probable 500,000 spindles, now in the process of erection, shall be completed, say in 1850, that the consumption will reach 650,000 bales, of 410 lbs. each, or 266,500,000 lbs., being nearly 20 millions more than was consumed in Great Britain in 1829, '30. She having that year consumed but 247,600,000 pounds.

With these few words of introduction, we give the two articles as we find them in the Economist, simply remarking that it is a Free Trade paper, much relied upon by the great English Anti Corn Law League.

From the London Economist of February 14.

CULTURE OF COTTON IN INDIA.

A paper of considerable importance to the commercial world was read at the first meeting of the Royal Asiatic Society, on Saturday last. It was a report, by Professor Royle, on the results of experiments made for the improvement of the cultivation and preparation of cotton, by American planters, at the three Presidencies of Bengal, Madras, and Bombay.

The experiments began in the year 1840, and the part selected for the first trial in the Bengal Presidency, was in the northwest provinces: it had been recommended by the cotton committee of the Agricultural Society of Calcutta, and was approved of by Lord Auckland. Mr. Vincent, of Needjuffghur, had then recently stated that in the neighbourhood of Allahabad, 294 lbs. of cotton per acre, might be obtained; and Mr. Bruce, that at the neighbourhood of Calpee, the average produce is 350 lbs. The American planters, on their first arrival, seemed pleased with the soil and people. The experiment, however, was not attended with any eventual success, though there were at first many favourable points. The failure appears to have been owing to the dryness of the soil and climate in the years of the experiment, and the Americans not employing irrigation, as is done with the same cotton in a very similar climate, that of Egypt.

The planters, having experienced the ill effects of too much dryness, were removed—one (Mr. Blount,) to Gorruckpore, and another, (Mr. Terry,) to Bungpore; but here the same ill success followed them, though from other causes. The American plant grew well during the rainy season, and gave good promise of an abundant harvest. But the plants were unfortunately attacked by insects, which settled on the young bolls and destroyed them. Besides which, the dryness of climate which immediately succeeds the rainy season was further injurious, as all the leaves fell off, and the plants appeared withered up. But after a short time, a fresh crop made its appearance, as well as flowers and bolls, but which had not time to ripen, as the plants were cut off by the frosts of December and January.

The experiments in the Madras Presidency were first commenced in the Tinnivelly district, but shortly afterwards in that of Coimbatore. Here considerable quantities of native cotton are cultivated, and Mr. Heath, many years since, succeeded very well with the Bourbon, or Tinnivelly cotton. There is abundance both of the red and the black cotton soil. The climate has some advantages, in being open to the influence of the seabreeze to the westward. But it has also the disadvantage of occasionally suffering from drought, and from severe storms, which have, in some years, much injured the cotton crop. These causes seem to have retarded the progress of the cotton experiment. But still it has succeeded, to a considerable extent, both in the cleaning and growing of cotton, as the specimens sent by Dr. Wight have been highly approved of by Liverpool brokers and Manchester manufacturers.

The experiments in the Bombay Presidency appear to have been too confined in their locality. Dr. Gibson, who is perfectly acquainted with every part of the Presidency, complains that the "dead, black soil of Broach" was exclusively cultivated; and Dr. Burns stated, that, at the same season, the native cotton was "the admiration of surrounding ryots."

The American planters, who were first sent to Bombay, having given up their engagements, their place was supplied by Mr. Hawley, from Madras, and by Mr. Mercer, from Bundlecund. The latter did not arrive at Dharwar until the 27th of April, 1842; and he seems to have selected that station because it was the site of the experimental farm in 1832, where some excellent cotton was produced, and which the American planters thought highly of when they examined the specimen still in the India house. Mr. Mercer, since he has been at Dharwar, has continued to be pleased with the soil, the climate, and the people; and has said, from the first, that he had better hopes of growing good cotton there, than he previously had of any other part of India. The cultivation has been greatly increased, and has been taken up by the natives, who find it more profitable than their own cotton. The similar success in 1832 with the present experiments, is interesting and important, showing that there must be some uniorm cause, for this uniform effect. The cause is, no doubt, the climate, which Mr. Mercer says is more like the

Mississippi climate, than any he has been in, in India. The elevation, being above the Ghauts, modifies the climate, and it also feels the influence of both moonsoons and rains, so that it never becomes extremely dry, and is never inundated with too much rain, as the force of the moonsoon is broken over the Ghauts. The culture of American cotton has here been yearly increasing in quantity, from 600 acres, the first year, (1842,) to 3,000; last year 6,000; and is calculated to be 15,000 this year, when Mr. Mercer thinks that not less than a million of pounds will be produced on the government farms by the ryots, and some German missionaries settled in the district. Mr. Mercer says the culture has been taken up by the natives, who find it more profitable than any other, as they get more of it per acre, and get a higher price for it, without extra expense in cultivation. The seed, instead of deteriorating, seems, to Mr. Mercer, to improve, and to reassume some of its Mexican character. He has no doubt of the complete success and extended culture of American cotton in this district, especially as a few of the natives have bought, and are using American gins. It only requires capital to be applied to it, by those interested in the improvement and extension of cotton culture in India. As the climate of Dharwar is favourable, there is no doubt that there is much of very similar climate throughout central India, where so much cotton is already grown by the natives, and which the present experimenters seem to have avoided, for the sake of keeping near water-carriage. There is ample space for the continued, almost unlimited extension of cotton culture in India, and most of the cotton planters now in India have been concentrated in the Bombay Presidency.

The cleaning by the new process has been well and successfully performed, as is shown by the reports of brokers, and the prices realized at Liverpool. Many of the natives brought their cotton to be cleaned, and the Bombay merchants have employed the machinery for the native cotton. The Indian weavers, moreover, purchase this cleaned native cotton at an increased price.

Another satisfactory result is, the high opinion entertained of the native cotton in many places—as, for instance, in the Dharwar district itself, but especially in the neighbourhood of Omerawtty—and which requires only to be carefully picked, cleaned, and packed, as some of it is both soft and long in the staple, and much of it as good as any short staple cotton in the world.

In answer to some queries sent out last spring by Dr. Royle, it is stated that cotton may be purchased at Hoobly at less than 1¼d. per pound; that by making advances to the ryots, a reduction of 20 to 25 per cent. may be made; and that any quantity, to the extent of six or seven lacs of rupees, (£60,000 to £70,000,) may be obtained. The cost of cleaning by the native process is, in rupees, 6¼ per candy, (7 cwt;) by the new process, 4 to 4¼ rupees, which will be reduced when better understood. The cost of conveyance to Bombay is stated at 20¼ rupees per candy.

The measures recommended for the formation of a company for purchasing, cleaning, and conveying cotton to the port of shipment, was thus detailed: 1st. The investment of a large amount of capital in saw gins; 2nd. The employment of proper persons for the establishment of these throughout the districts, and for purchasing cotton direct from the ryots, by making liberal advances to them yearly, after their crops are sown. European mechanics would be required to look after the working, repairing, &c. of the machines, and a set of sharp young men, who would not be too lazy to learn the native language, to look after the business of advances, &c. With five or six lacs of rupees capital, a company might, with such a plan, monopolize nearly the whole cotton crop of the Southern Mahratta country, benefit the cultivators, and make immense profits. As to the method of conveying the cotton to the port of shipment, I know of none better than the one now practised, unless government or companies make roads. As long as we are confined to mere tracks down the Ghauts, it is useless to propose any thing to improve the description of carriage.

From the same, of February 21.

In reference to our article of last week, on the culture of cotton in India, we have received the following addition to the substance of the report then published:

The anxiety of the commercial body in England, which has taken an interest in the probability of India supplying the place of American cotton, has been directed more to the price than to the quality of the staple. All our previous information has led us to believe, that the produce per acre has been very small. The first supply, in 1841–42, raised by Dr. Wight, at Coimbatore, did not exceed 40 lbs. per acre. Even the glowing anticipations of Mr. Mercer, at Dharwar, where he hopes to gather a million of pounds from 15,000 acres, will give less than 67 lbs. for each; but the following extracts from a late letter from Dr. Wight, dated 6th December last, to Dr. Royle, in London, affords a brilliant prospect indeed; and we give insertion to it, to cheer the hopes of those who have in vain looked, hitherto, for any thing like a profitable return:

"We have, in the Southwestern Talooks of Coimbatore, perhaps little short of 800, or perhaps 1,000 square miles of country, partaking more or less of both moonsoons, and over the whole of which our sowings may commence in June, with the almost certain prospect of having showery weather until September, and with a moderate degree of certainty of having rains again, from the northeast, in October and November. All over that tract of country, whatever its extent, be it 500 or 5,000 square miles, the American cotton can be most successfully and profitably cultivated, by merely taking advantage of the season, and sowing it at the latter end of June, or early in July; later than that, it does not answer near so well."

Dr. Wight adds, that they had—

"Already collected 250 lbs. per acre off one of these early sown fields, and it does not look as if a single pound had come off it; while others, sown in August, can hardly, judging from present appearances, give as much as that for their whole crop. The first sown fields will continue to yield cotton until the setting in of the southwestern moonsoon in June next, producing, in the course of that long period, probably, not fewer than 1,000 lbs. per acre."

A VOICE FROM PENNSYLVANIA,

IN A LETTER FROM ELLIOTT CRESSON, ESQ., TO THE HON. THOMAS BUTLER KING.

We give place with pleasure to the following letter from Elliott Cresson, Esq., of Philadelphia, to the Hon. Thomas Butler King, a member of Congress, from Georgia.

Mr. Cresson is a gentleman wholly unconnected with manufactures or trade of any kind, but ardently attached to the best interests of his country.

He has been much abroad, and has a very extensive acquaintance with the iron masters both of Europe and the United States. We fully agree with him in his views of the fatal effects to be produced upon the industry of Pennsylvania by the enactment of the new tariff law, as proposed by Mr. Secretary Walker. It is not alone that its adoption would, as Mr. Cresson justly says, "entail utter ruin upon Pennsylvania," but twenty-four States and one Territory are more or less engaged in the iron business, to say nothing of the prostration of other important interests, and the derangement of the currency which must ensue from reducing the country to a dependance on British manufactures.

What Mr. Cresson says on the subject of ad valorem duties is strictly true. No possible calculation could be made of the amount of revenue to be received under them, from the great fluctuation of prices which takes place in England. This variation applies to all articles of manufactures, but is rendered more obvious on iron than on other goods. A reference to an article published in the National Magazine for March, at page 957, from English authority, will show, that, from June, 1822, to June, 1824, the extreme fluctuation in bar iron in England was £7 sterling per ton, and in January, 1825, the price was £14 sterling per ton, and it fell the same year to £10. In 1826–27, the highest quotation was £9, while in 1832 it fell to £4 15s. In January, 1844, the price in London was £6; in April, of the same year, £9 15s.; in July £7 15s.; in October, £8 15.; December, £10. Thus it will be seen, that in 1832, thirty per cent. duty would have produced $6 84 per ton, while in December, 1844, it would have been $14 40, and in January 1824, $20 16.

But it is useless to enumerate the many disadvantages of ad valorem duties, they are so obvious that there is not a single merchant engaged in our foreign trade who does not condemn them. They possess not one single good property, but unsettle all values, and by the ease with which unprincipled foreigners can evade them, throw the whole importing business into their hands, to the destruction of all honest merchants, and the defrauding of the government of the rate of duty imposed.

But we must not extend our remarks too far, to detain the reader from this valuable letter, which we commend to his careful perusal, simply asking him to refer to our article in this number on the growth of cotton in British India, as confirmatory of what Mr. Cresson has to say on that subject.

Philadelpha, February 14, 1846.

My Dear Sir:—You kindly invited me to address you—and as *the* veritable "bill of abominations" (Mr. Walker's Tariff,) is now before us, I hope that a few comments on this suicidal measure may be acceptable.

Iron being one of our chief staples in Pennsylvania, has, of course, been the subject of anxious inquiry: and I am fully persuaded, from conversations with some of the principal operators, who are frequently in this city, that the 30 per cent. duty, now proposed, is fraught with ruin to all the interests of our State. For, as one of our most enlightened iron masters said to me yesterday, "The business of the last five years has not, as a whole, even made good our losses. Previous to the passage of the tariff, they were so heavy, that another year must have ruined us all. I much prefer iron to be enumerated among the *free* articles, rather than at 30 per cent., for then we should, by being crushed at once, escape a lingering, though certain death. The prosperity of the last three years has accrued to the agricultural and operative classes rather than to us, who have been experimenting, in hopes of competing with the skill, capital, and pauper labour of England, so as eventually to reimburse ourselves for the outlay that has enabled Pennsylvania to resume her payments." Another intelligent manufacturer stated, that the product of iron in Pennsylvania during the past year had exceeded 320,000 tons, and such was the confidence in their ability to supply the wants of the country under the present tariff, that, if unmolested by further agitation of that subject, even this large yield would be doubled within the two next years.

Deeply anxious myself, to see my beloved native State rise above the humiliations and reproach consequent upon repudiation, however temporary, I confess to you, in all candour, that I believe Walker's bill will entail *utter ruin* upon Pennsylvania, and this would be the more to be deplored, as the action of our State carries more weight with it, either for good or for evil, in Britain, than that of any other member of the Union. It may be pretended that at present rates of iron in England, the proposed duty is adequate. True. But it must be recollected that the present prices *cannot* long continue, and instead of £10 per ton, it may soon be reduced, as it was only three years since, to £4. Pigs, too, which have been above 100s., may again fall to 28s., a price at which it is impossible to manufacture them here. A duty of 30 per cent. will then be of no avail in preventing an avalanche from the *mountains* of pig metal, accumulated by the great producers, whose yield reaches 3,000 tons *each* per week; and to prevent a ruinous fall in their *home* market, almost any price *here* is preferable to sacrifices on the spot.

To give you some idea of the scale of production in England, I was there a few years since, when Mr. Crawshay had stacked up 50,000 tons of bar iron, not choosing to accept the current rates. What would be the effect upon our producers—generally enfeebled by the effects of our past folly—if one such operator was to disburthen their home trade by sending out his stock alone, when our duties would actually afford but one-third their present protection? By one such masterly stroke, he would effectually destroy the American iron manufacture, and secure to himself, each subsequent year, a demand, at prices as high as at present; and, having no check but his own *conscience*, (*!*) might, while realizing profits of 100 to 200 per cent., continue to enter his iron as costing only £4 per ton. In short, SPECIFIC DUTIES can alone prevent the systematic frauds that, by the commercial morals of Europe, are deemed perfectly fair against their rivals: and, as it is a question of life and death to them, are often referred to with great glee, as the secret of their rolling in wealth, while their victims are utterly ruined. The celebrated Methuen treaty of 1703, with Portugal, is so full of instruction to us, that I trust the rapid decadence of that once wealthy and enterprising commercial nation, beneath the withering effects of English fraud and cunning, will be powerfully portrayed by some one of the patriot band who are willing to do battle for the right, against the monstrous fraud conceived by men not deserving the name of politicians, at the expense of American interests and morals, and of State, and perhaps national, bankruptcy.

If their political managers deny the relevancy of the example of Portugal at the end of 142 years, let them witness the swift destruction brought upon us by the fatal results of the Compromise Act, during the brief period of ten years, between 1832 and 1842! Had the home consumption of cotton then reached, as now, nearly 200,000,000 pounds per annum, England could not, as almost the sole consumer, have dictated to you her own prices for your staple; nor could she have reduced us to so abject a state of bankruptcy, as our production of coarse cottons to that extent would have prevented, *pro tanto*, our indebtedness to her for that very necessary article. Up to 1842, our condition was that of the most abject slavery to our European taskmasters. The Declaration of Independence was but the mere *theory* of freedom. The peace of 1783 reduced us again into a bondage virtually worse than that of colonial dependance. Our own want of sound, practical statesmanship, aided but too fatally the Machiavelian policy of Europe in preventing our escape from these fetters. Occasionally, paroxysms of sound patriotism have, for the time, arrested our downward career.

The long and sanguinary wars of Europe gave an impulse to neutral trade, that prevented us from suffering the full penalty of our folly in depending exclusively on foreign supplies. But after millions upon millions had been invested in praiseworthy attempts to build up home industry at various periods, every effort has been consigned to premature ruin by some new crotchet in politics—some new doctrine to elevate designing and ignorant demagogues to power at the expense of the national weal, and by the ruthless sacrifice of those who had invested their capital on the faith of laws written upon the sand. Thus, at the close of hostilities in 1815, sixty millions were swept away by the reduction of the duties, depending upon which, patriotic citizens had built up furnaces, foundries, forges and factories to enable the United States to carry on the war of 1812. It was only after our thousand experiments upon a too credulous people had reduced us to the verge of ruin, that the tariff of 1842 realized to the United States the fruition of the freedom *promised* in 1776. During the dark days that preceded this, our second and real declaration of independence, the manufacturer witnessed the gradual waste of his capital; while the real benefits of his enterprise were divided between the operative, who enjoyed larger wages than he could otherwise have acquired, and the public, who were thus rescued from the exactions of foreign capitalists. But no sooner had this truly "American System" begun to operate, and the manufacturer received his share of the profits, than the odious cry of the poor against the rich was again got up to crush the rising prosperity of this demagogue-ridden country. McDuffie opened the flood-gates of his abuse against these public spirited and enterprising citizens, though I well remember seeing him a few years before, at Washington, wearing upon his own person the profession of patriotism, in rude, homespun fabric; but now, those skilful and persevering men, who have produced fabrics vying in texture, color, and cheapness, with those of Europe, are branded as bloated monopolists.

But has not the South benefited largely by the industry of the East, under the fructifying influences of the tariff, even if too supine to enter into manufacturing for herself? Had England remained the sole market for her cotton, the entire crop of the South would not have brought as much as she has realized for the portion now sold abroad, in consequence of New England competition, for nearly 200,000,000 lbs. now consumed at home. Nor is this all—for, in addition to the proceeds thus retained here, to disburse in the purchase of our own commodities, the perfection attained in the manufacture of these useful fabrics, enabled them to compete so successfully with those of England in foreign markets, that Mr. Van Buren's deceptive "reciprocity treaty" has not prevented her from laying a discriminating duty of 300 per cent. against our cottons in India! And finding, that in markets open to our competition, we were driving her coarse cottons out of use, her merchants and manufacturers clamored, until, in self defence, her duty of 2s. 11d. sterling on cotton was repealed, thus securing to the South an additional $3,000,000 per annum on her cotton crop—not as a boon, not as a feature of her pretended free trade system, but reluctantly wrung from her grasp by the legitimate operation of our tariff of 1842. And, as if to confute the pernicious doctrine that the *consumer* pays the duty, the South has received a larger price for her great staple since the repeal of the English duty, than she did when burdened with an import of three millions.

But what is the South to gain by the repeal of a tariff that has been as beneficial to her as to the Union at large? If she should crush, thereby, the "bloated monopolists," so hateful to Mr. McDuffie, her entire crop, going to Liverpool, would reduce the price of cotton ruinously low, and, *pari passu*, their duty would be renewed on the raw material, while the old standard of prices for their goods (thrice the present value) would be again exacted.

The tariff has not yet performed half its destined good. Our manufuctures of cotton, now only embrace the coarser articles, which afford our labouring population, and your two millions of field hands, a material far superior to those of England and India, for wear and comfort, and *at one-fourth their former price.* The finer articles are not yet made here; and that most important export of England, *cotton yarn*, requring annually nearly as much of your great staple as the entire consumption of the United States, is yet a desideratum. Give to home industry the poor privilege to exist, and you will soon find these new branches of manufacture imparting new impulse and energy to our export trade, and doubling the domestic demand for a staple doomed by the abolitionists of Britain to a speedy exclusion from her ports.

Her philanthropists have denounced your staple as the "blood stained products of the guilty South," and have publicly and solemnly warned you, that they should be driven from her markets, and from those of Europe. She has spent vast sums in effecting this purpose. In India, her crop of cotton now exceeds the entire product of the United States a few years since. At first, her efforts were unsuccessful, but new regions have been conquered, new localities have been found, congenial to its growth, and the seed of the American cotton is rapidly improving under the process of acclimation.

Again: gigantic efforts are making by her, the world over, to crush the "hated South." In the Mauritius, Berbice, Demerara, and Trinidad, millions have been expended in expatriating the Coolies of India, to cultivate cotton; and thousands of slaves, captured from other nations, continue slaves, under another name it is true, for the great purpose of crushing "the South and her staples." Even South Africa is now the field of extensive experiments in cotton growing; and the South may awake from her folly, after destroying the best of all marts, the home market, to find herself the dupe of English free-trade delusion, cut off from a market, either at home or abroad; and those whom she ought to have cherished, as the apple of her eye, who consume in their haunts of frugal, persevering, home industry, an amount of agricultural produce far exceeding all our foreign customers, prostrated beneath the fratricidal blows aimed at her very existence by the sons of noble sires, whose motto, in 1776, was, "United we stand, divided we fall."

Believe, me, with sentiments of high regard and esteem, yours truly,

ELLIOTT CRESSON.

Hon. Thos. Butler King.

PROPOSED ALTERATION IN THE BRITISH TARIFF.

We have examined, more at our leisure, the policy of Sir Robert Peel, and read, with great care and interest, his able exposition of it, noticing, particularly, the various articles he proposes to admit free of duty, and the list of those to be admitted at reduced rates.

Among the free articles will be found every description of raw material which enters into fabrics made in Great Britain, including cotton, woollen, linen, &c., &c., together with various articles of food, as beef, and pork, (salted and fresh,) live stock, Indian corn, &c., &c., besides a reduction of duties on many of the products of the mechanical trades; and, finally, with a radical change in the corn laws, still retaining a much reduced duty, to extend over a period of three years, on a sliding scale, at the expiration of which, wheat is to be admitted at a duty of four shillings sterling, per quarter, or twelve cents per bushel.

Bold as these measures may at first appear, they have been matured deliberately, and after the most thorough examination, as to their effects upon British interests. Sir Robert Peel is no common man, but a deep-thinking, sagacious minister, and we may well take his word for it, "that care has been taken, in the proposed changes, not to materially affect any important British interest."

Of course, the protection of British interests is the object of this measure, as it has been in all that have ever been adopted, from prohibition and the most enormous duties, to the system under consideration. There are various ways of protecting the industry of a nation, besides high duties. The repeal of the duty on cotton, when imported into England, is as much a measure to protect her cotton manufactures, as the minimum duty on cotton goods is a measure to protect American cottons, with this difference, that our minimums are to secure our own market, and the taking off the duty in England is to secure a foreign one. Sir Robert Peel does not pretend the duty thus taken off is not needed—far from it; in all his reductions of duty, he undertakes to provide ways and means to counteract the effect to be produced upon the treasury by so doing

Sir Robert, nowhere in his speech, tells Parliament that he is about to lessen the general taxes. He well knows, that the duties he is about to remove on manufactured articles are a dead letter. He knows that the capital, skill, and advanced industry, of Great Britain, is a full protection against the importation of cottons, woollens, &c.; and he knows, that taking off duty on raw materials, is, in effect, a bounty to the manufacturer. These raw materials are not produced in Great Britain, and Sir Robert justly thinks, taking off the duty will, in the aggregate, lessen the price, and increase the consumption. We repeat, therefore, that the reduction of the duties on the manufactured goods is a dead letter, and the admission of raw materials, duty free, is a bounty to the manufacturer. And we ask a reference to Sir Robert Peel's speech, to show that he again and again says he does not intend to interfere with British interests. We quote from his opening, where he speaks as follows:

Speaking of the duty on cotton, he says, "But the House was sensible that, with the continuance of that tax, there was a formidable competition; and the House disregarded the consideration of some 600,000 lbs., or 700,000 lbs., of revenue; they wished to establish the prosperity of the great staple manufacture of this country, the cotton manufacture, on some sure and certain foundation; they willingly, therefore, consented to forego an amount of duty so easily levied, and causing so little complaint from the great body of the people, without, perhaps, minute inquiry into its immediate effect; and both, in regard to sheep's wool, and cotton wool, this House has subjected itself to the impost of an income tax, and, out of consideration *for the permanent prosperity of manufactures, remitted the duties attached to the raw materials.*"

Surely, after an avowal such as this, we shall not be told that the abolition of the duties, as proposed by Sir Robert, has any other object than the advancement of British interests, as we have shown that he, himself, declares in another part of his speech.

But the question for Americans to consider, is, how is it to effect the interests of the United States? We inhabit a country of every variety of soil and climate, very different, in this respect, and in extent of territory, from England. The Atlantic Ocean washes 3,000 miles of our sea coast; we count our square miles by millions, while Great Britain enumerates hers by thousands; we have a population of about ten to a square mile, while hers is crowded into between two and three hundred. We are thus placed in a position entirely opposite to that of the British Isles, and, in all our legislation, should look to our own position. The political economy adapted to Europe, has no aptitude, either for our physical or moral condition. England is a great nation, because she has heretofore, by prohibitions, bounties, and protective duties, cherished her home industry, and increased her capital, until both are vastly beyond her own wants, except that her humid climate sometimes injures her crops of grain. She has reached every perfection in manufactures and the arts, so as to fear no competition in her own market. What more proper for her, than to strike from her statute book inoperative duties on manufactured goods, and admit raw materials, the grain and provisions of all nations, at low duties, or free of duty, to relieve her starving population. There is, undoubtedly, but one possible reason why she should not, and that is, the possibility that this total change, as regards her agriculture, may overturn her existing institutions. We say not that it will, neither are we sure that it will not. Public opinion required that this experiment should be tried. Sir Robert Peel thinks he has provided against it—whether he has or not, time alone can determine. Doubtless he has done the best that could be done under the circumstances. But it is the height of folly to talk of these measures, as having any thing to do with "free trade." Trade is carried on in ships, and can be as much protected through navigation laws, as by duties. How does this matter stand so far as England is concerned ? Let us see : 1st. No foreign vessel can be engaged in, or in any way interfere with, the British coasting trade : 2d. No foreign vessel can import into England, for home consumption, any other than the produce of its own country ; for instance, no American vessel can load a cargo of tallow at any Russian port, and import it into the United Kingdom of Great Britain, for home consumption. She may take such a cargo there, and enter it for exportation, but it must be re-exported, and cannot be entered for consumption. If the grower cannot carry his own produce, the English must, in English ships ; no other nation is permitted so to do.

The English colonial trade is also protected. No article, the produce of her colonies, can be imported into England, and entered for home consumption, in any other than British ships, manned by British seamen.

The exports to the colonies, we find, on reference to returns compiled from official documents, were, in 1843 :

Of British and Irish produce to all colonies, except India,......	£11,482,707
" " India......................	4,748,607
	£16 231,314
	$67,910,307

We do not find the imports from the colonies separated from the general table, but it is easy to see they must have been great, from the amount of exports.

How, then, we ask again, are the new regulations to affect us, and what is our true policy ?

To carry on her industry, Great Britain needs vast quantities of the raw materials of cotton and wool, but we do not ; we have more of the elements necessary to make a great nation, than any other country that can be named. We are, however, but just commencing our national education, not having yet acquired the capital and skill possessed by our European rivals. Europe is an over peopled country. Thirty years' progress in the arts of peace, have turned large masses of men from consumers into producers, and Great Britain has, in foreign countries, sharp competitors to particular branches of her manufactures. Her restrictive system has, till now, been of the closest character, even to the prohibition of the exportation of all machinery, and the emigration of artisans, for more than a century. These laws were repealed several years since, because they had become nugatory. The exportation of machinery is permitted, for the sole reason that other nations have acquired the art of constructing it; that this is the reason, we learn from the argument in the House of Commons, at the time the prohibition was removed. Thus it is seen that Great Britain is every ready to take advantage of any change in the relative position of other nations, and to profit by it as far as she can. Having acquired, from her long experience, her immense capital, and consummate skill in all the arts and sciences, the most decided advantages, she can now well afford to relax her restrictive system, which has made her what she is, and offer what she is pleased to call reciprocity, but which is, in fact, reducing such nations as adopt it, to be nothing less than her colonies.

We produce the raw materials, and heavy and bulky productions she needs. She may well consent, indeed she is under the necessity, to take our cotton, for which, on an average, she pays, perhaps, ten cents, and pays for it in fabrics at ten, twenty, or thirty times its value, made so by her advantages, to which we have above referred. She may well strike off nominal duties of ten or twenty per cent.

She runs no more risk of interference in her home market, on cotton and woollen fabrics, than she would on iron and cutlery. Her object is, undoubtly, to endeavour to supply the world with manufactured goods.

It is, however, yet a problem to be solved, whether the labourer or the capitalist is to be benefited by the proposed reduction in her tariff; and should it benefit the labourer, we shall then see whether her object will be attained. We have no hesitation in recording it as our opinion, that if the present proposition for the reduction of her duties, or any other cause, shall raise the mass in England to the comforts and compensations they enjoy here, her scheme will be a total failure. Sir Robert speaks of relief to the mass in their consumption, but he nowhere speaks of raising the value of labour. In England, labour is degraded, as we have shown in our last number, to the lowest point of a bare and miserable existence. But we hear nothing said of raising the wages of labour; all that Sir Robert says on this subject, is, that he had become satisfied that labour was not affected by the price of grain.

In *our* political economy, labour is a commodity, and the only commodity, the mere labourer has to dispose of, and, like all other commodities, is chiefly affected by demand and supply; like such commodities, it will bear a nominally higher or lower *price*, as the currency is expanded or contracted. It always gives us a poor opinion of an author, when he brings *price* forward as a criterion to judge of the comparative value of an article at different periods of time, more particularly when labour is the article to be so tested. It may very well be, that the *price* of labour may be lower in one part of the world than another, and yet the labourer have many more of the necessaries and comforts of life.

In some of our western States, in a contracted state of the currency, the *price* of labour may be, and probably is, lower than in some places in England, while the American labourer is well clothed and fed, and the English labourer can scarcely exist.

The circumstances governing the political economy of England and America, have no more to do with each other, than that which governs a Hottentot, or an Esquimaux, has to do with a Hollander, or a Swiss. The mass, in England, with all her civilization and wealth, we have shown to be in a state of existence little better than the Hottentots. In immense quantities, they are paupers receiving poor rates, and, even with this aid, dragging out a miserable existence in filth and wretchedness, borne down with the pressure of the privileged orders, and with all the evils of over population. What is to be the remedy, we pretend not to foresee, short of a total change in the relative order of society. Sir Robert Peel's plan, may do some good for a short period, but it will not remedy the evil? We must be permitted to doubt it. The labour and skill of Great Britain has every year to produce the interest of the public debt, the tithes must be paid, and, as it seems to us, the same burthens borne. Man does not live by bread alone, he has many other physical wants and a higher destiny; here he can have all his physical wants well supplied, relatively cheaper than in any other part of the world, so long as we preserve him from the vicious systems of Europe by protection to his labour, which the British House of Lords and our Secretary of the Treasury, would fain take from him. We have, however, an earnest hope that they will not succeed, for should they do so, there will then be an end to American Independence, and the blood spilt and the treasure expended in our Revolution, will have been expended and spilt in vain.

COMMERCE AND NAVIGATION.

The following remarks and statistics are presented to the Editor of the National Magazine, from the impression that their publication may be serviceable at this time, when our executive authorities are calling so urgently upon Congress for its action to change the commercial policy of the United States.

The mercantile navigation of the United States has suffered material injury from the effects of the existing treaties and arrangements between the United States and Great Britain and other nations in Europe.

These treaties and this arrangement, termed reciprocal, have not proved beneficial to the navigation of the United States.

The navigation of the United States engaged in foreign trade has not increased within the past sixteen years in proportion to the increase in the exports and imports of our country, as it would have done, but for undue advantages under the commercial regulations granted by the United States to foreign shipping in the trade of this country. On the contrary, the navigation of foreign nations has increased, within that period, to the extent of more than ten times beyond its proportion to those exports and imports.

The navigation of Great Britain has increased, until it is now eighty-five per centum of the whole foreign navigation employed in the trade of this country. This proportion and increase is so large that it deserves particular attention.

The true causes of this may be found in the "free port warehouse and naturalization" system of Great Britain, established in her North American provinces by reason of the commercial arrangement made in the year 1830 between the United States and that government.

Her cheap built provincial navigation, through that system, has enjoyed advantages in the ports of this country in which our navigation could not participate, and has used the rights and privileges of British navigation in the direct trade between this country and the United Kingdom of Great Britain.

From these regulations, British navigation is rapidly superseding our navigation in the transport, not only of the produce of the British provinces to this country, but of the produce of this country to those provinces, and to the British possessions in the West Indies and South America, and in the direct transport from this country to the United Kingdom of Great Britain.

The United States, having no colonies, must depend for the support of her navigation on direct trade with foreign countries, and so much of the carrying trade from one foreign country to another as she is permitted to enjoy: in this latter branch she is almost entirely excluded from the dominions of Great Britain.

Is it right that this arrangement, giving such privileges to British shipping, should be any longer continued?

The rapid increase of British tonnage in our Southern ports, gives ground for serious fears that it will, in a very few years, almost entirely displace our own shipping in that branch of its trade.

In the year 1830—The exports by British ships to GreatBritain, were valued at ....$5,897,000, against $19,876,000 by American ships.
And in the year 1844—
The exports by British ships,...$18,716,000, against $29,078,000 by American ships.

Thus showing that British navigation has increased in the transport of our domestic exports to Great Britain, within the past fifteen years, over three hundred per cent., against an increase by the shipping of this country of less than fifty per cent.

We will now present other views of the commerce and navigation of our country, which are important at this time because of the alteration in our national commercial policy.

The following statement of imports into this country for the year ending 30th June, 1845, [less the exports of the same articles,] has been made from the Report of the Secretary of the Treasury to Congress, dated 3d December, 1845. The duties affixed are from the same document, and the freights are from estimates made by the writer:

Foreign Manufactured Articles:

ARTICLES.	Value in Dollars.	Duties in Dollars.	Freights in Dollars.
Of Silk,............................	10,840,000	2,968,000	36,100
" Wool,............................	10,750,000	3,755,000	80,625
" Cotton,............................	13,360,000	4,908,000	133,360
" Flax,..................	4,893,000	1,263,000	48,930
" Iron, ...	4,022,000	1,607,000	120,360
" Railroad iron, ...	1,000,000	600,000	96,000
" Cigars,............................	1,086,000	305,000	25,000
" Brass and other metals,.............	3,690,000	688,000	55,500
" Earthen and glassware,..............	3,122,000	1,087,000	218,540
" Clothing, ready made, ...	1,108,000	449,000	11,080
" Hats and bonnets,..	732,000	256,000	10,980
" Leather, (boots and shoes,).........	848,000	242,000	12,720
" Paper,............................	276,000	60,000	4,140
" Cotton bagging,.....................	102,000	56,000	1,530
Other unenumerated articles,..............	3,000,000	250,000	75,000
	58,829,000	18,494,000	929,865

Foreign Articles for Consumption, as Imported:

ARTICLES.	Value in Dollars.	Duties in Dollars.	Freights in Dollars.
Coffee,	5,380,000	free.	943,580
Tea,	4,809,000	free.	343,000
Sugar, (proportion of,)	2,024,000	1,067,000	375,000
Wines,	1,493,000	1,292,000	111,925
Spirits,	1,095,000	1,550,000	109,500
Fruits and spices,	1,480,000	560,000	124,000
Molasses, (proportion of,)	1,000,000	300,000	280,000
Salt,	883,000	678,000	247,000
Coal,	188,000	130,000	188,000
Fish,	300,000	50,000	30,000
Beer, ale, and porter,	90,000	19,000	8,000
Other unenumerated articles,	1,500,000	89,000	225,000
	20,242,000	5,735,000	2,985,005

Foreign Articles for Manufacture in the United States:

ARTICLES.	Value in Dollars.	Duties in Dollars.	Freights in Dollars.
Sugar,	2,025,000	1,510,000	562,500
Molasses,	2,072,000	591,000	450,000
Iron,	2,966,000	1,401,000	415,000
Steel,	750,000	97,000	25,000
Hides and furs,	4,706,000	332,000	610,000
Copper and brass,	1,951,000	free.	140,000
Mahogany,	248,000	40,000	49,600
Wool,	1,667,000	123,000	330,050
Rags,	416,000	27,000	75,000
Saltpetre,	486,000	free.	245,000
Hemp,	483,000	173,000	78,000
Indigo,	768,000	53,000	15,000
Dye stuffs, &c.,	294,000	free.	190,000
Bristles,	178,000	3,000	4,000
Camphor,	143,000	35,000	3,000
Dye woods,	337,000	free.	50,000
Linseed,	369,000	19,000	205,000
Raw silk, &c.,	710,000	173,000	12,000
Other unenumerated articles,	2,000,000	100,000	295,000
	22,569,000	4,677,000	3,754,150

⁂ This classification of articles, and application of values and duties to them, are not presumed to be strictly correct, but they are approximately so; and if it were possible to make an exact statement, it probably would not make any difference in the deductions we intend drawing from them.

RECAPITULATION.

	Value.	Duties.	Freights.
	Dollars.	Dollars.	Dollars.
Foreign manufactured articles,	58,829,000	18,494,000	929,865
Foreign articles for consumption, as imported,	20,242,000	5,735,000	2,985,005
Foreign articles for manufacture in this country,	22,569,000	4,677,000	3,754,150
	101,640,000	28,906,000	7,669,020

Hides and linseed, two articles of very great importance, not mentioned in the Secretary's Report, excepting under the head of unenumerated articles, are specified in the foregoing statement; the values and freights attached to them have been obtained from correct sources of information.

The following rates of freights, were the basis from which the foregoing estimates of the freights were made:

From France to the United States—

On silk goods,	12 dollars per ton, [of 40 cubic feet.]
" Cotton and woollen goods,	10 " " "
" Coarse " "	6 " " "
" Heavy articles,	4 " " " [2240 lbs.]
" Wines,	4 cents per gallon.

From England to the United States—

On silk goods,	£2 0 per ton measurement.
" Cotton and woollen goods,	2 0 " " "
" Crockery ware,	0 15 " " "
" Hardware,	1 10 " " "
" Iron, &c.,	1 0 " " [2240 lbs.]

From other parts of Europe to the United States—

On Iron,	£1 10 per ton, [2240 lbs.]
" Hemp,	2 10 " " [1600 lbs.]
" Cordage,	1 0 " " [2240 lbs.]
" Piece goods,	1 10 " " measurement.
" Wines, &c.,	4 cents per gallon.
" Wool,	1 cent per pound.
" Rags,	¾ of a cent per pound.

From the East of the Cape of Good Hope to the United States—

On tea,	2½ cents per pound.
" Sugar,	1¼ " " "
" Hemp,	1¾ " " "
" Coffee,	1¼ " " "
" Silk goods, " Cotton goods,	20 dollars per ton measurement.
" Pepper,	2½ cents per pound.
" Linseed,	16 dollars per ton, [1600 lbs.]
" Hides,	2½ cents per pound.

From the West Coast of South America to the United States—

On copper, in bars,	1 cent per pound.
" Hides,	2 " " "
" Hides from California,	3 " " "
" Other goods,	15 dollars per ton measurement.

From Buenos Ayres to the United States—

On wool,	1½ cent per pound.
" Coffee and sugar,	¾ of a cent per pound.

From the West Indies to the United States—

On sugar,	½ a cent per pound.
" Coffee,	½ " " "
" Cigars,	25 cents per M.
" Molasses,	3 cents per gallon.
" Salt,	8 cents per bushel.

From the British North American Colonies to the United States—

On plaster,	50 cents per ton,
" Coal,	2 dollars per chaldron.

It is well here to remark, that the foregoing rates were for sailing vessels only. The steam vessels that were engaged in the transport of those goods received a much larger rate of freight, and so much as it was larger, it should be added to the amount of freight in our statement of them. That addition may be estimated as follows:

There were imported during that period into Boston and New York, by the British steam packet ships, foreign manufactures of silk, cotton, and wool, of the cost of at least five millions of dollars, at freights, averaging seven pounds sterling per ton. Or three times the amount by sail ships—

Say,	$107,100
Deduct the amount estimated for the same goods in our statement for sailing ships,	35,700
And it leaves this addition to the freight on "foreign manufactures,"	$71,400

In reference to this new mode of transporting foreign manufactured goods to this country, the inquiry occurs, what consequences are to result from the increase of this steam communication with Great Britain, France, and the other important nations in Europe? There can be no doubt that this country will follow the successful example of Great Britain in the application of steam to the navigation of the Atlantic. In fact, arrangements are already making for such a purpose, on a magnificent scale, aided by our own government. In the course of a few years, the transport of all our valuable commodities, such as our first division presents, will be by this rapid and certain motive power, holding as it does so many advantages over the slow and uncertain sail ships. The consequence to our sailing navigation must be, that it will lose this branch of transport.

In order that a view of the entire freights on the transport to and from foreign countries may be presented, the following statement of freights on the exports for the year ending 30th June, 1845, is given:

ARTICLES.	Value.	Freights.
Cotton,	$51,739,000	$8,729,000
Tobacco,	7,469,000	1,029,000
Rice,	2,160,000	354,000
Flour,	5,398,000	954,000
Lead,	342,000	36,000
Agricultural products—provisions of all kinds,	8,641,000	780,000
Lumber, oil, fish, and all the materials of the forest and the sea,	11,057,000	2,152,000
Manufactured articles in the United States,	11,173,000	363,000
Foreign articles imported into the United States,	15,346,000	390,000
Unenumerated articles,	1,315,000	171,000
	$114,640,000	$14,958,000

It thus appears from the foregoing statements that

Freights on imports for domestic manufacture amounted to		$3,754,150
" on exports for foreign manufacture, "		9,758,000
" on exports of our domestic manufacture, "		363,000
		$13,875,150
Freights on imports of foreign manufacture, amounted to		929,865
" on imports, for consumption, as imported, "	$2,985,005	3,375,005
" on exports, of foreign imports, "	390,000	
" on exports of the bulky articles of our fisheries, our forests, and of our agriculture, to		4,447,000
Whole amount,		$22,627,020

It is interesting to remark, from this statement, the very small amount of freights received for the transport of foreign manufactured articles, that composed so large a proportion of the whole value of our imports; the very large amount of freights received for the transport of the imports and exports for manufacturing purposes at home and abroad, and the very large amount of freights for the transport of the bulky articles of our fisheries, our forests, and of our agriculture.

The very large amount of freights received for articles for manufacture at home and abroad, presents those crude materials in a strong point of view, and proves to us, that in considering the navigation employed, we should regard the quantity and bulk of the commodity, and the distant places from and to which it is transported.

We have seen that British navigation was largely engaged in the transport of those commodities, and if our anticipations were realized, our own navigation would, before long, be entirely superseded in that branch of its employment connected with the kingdom of Great Britain, and her North American Provinces and West Indian and South American Colonies.

Let us look at our trade with other foreign countries, as it was prior to the change induced by the introduction of our manufacturing systems, and as it is at the present period.

	Imports.	Domestic Exports.	Tons of Shipping.
In the year 1828—	Value in Dollars.	Value in Dollars.	Value in Dollars.
Our trade with the Dutch East Indies,....	113,000	83,000	1,454
" " " " British East Indies,...	1,543,000	55,000	2,589
" " " " Manilla,................	60,000	20,000	829
" " " " China,..................	5,340,000	230,000	9,900
" " " " Buenos Ayres & Montevideo,	317,000	94,000	1,363
" " " " Brazil,.................	3,009,000	1,505,000	24,482
" " " " other South American ports, and West Coast of N. America,..	1,904,000	1,776,000	8,672
	12,286,000	3,763,000	49,291
In the year 1845—			
Our trade with the Dutch East Indies,.....	935,000	98,000	4,900
" " " " British East Indies,....	1,650,000	338,000	10,479
" " " Manilla,.................	725,000	92,000	6,636
" " " China,...................	4,931,000	1,110,000	15,035
" " " Buenos Ayres & Montevideo,	1,551,000	640,000	17,300
" " " Brazils,.................	6,883,000	2,409,000	48,550
" " " the other South American ports, and West Coast North America,	8,434,000	2,574,000	19,747
	21,519,000	7,257,000	122,647
Increase	75 per cent.	90 per cent.	150 per cent.

This double increase of tonnage employed, over the increase in the value of imports, is owing to the present importation of the coarse and bulky articles for manufacture, instead of the manufactured silk and cotton goods of China, Manilla and Calcutta, imported from those countries sixteen years ago.

To be more particular, we now give a general description of the goods imported in 1828:

	Value.
Manufactured cotton goods,	$1,041,000
Manufactured silk goods,	2,627,000
Indigo, [which was imported for export,]	1,030,000
Hides,	1,040,000
Sugar,	284,000
Copper, in pigs or bars,	650,000
Teas,	1,800,000
Wool,	18,000
Coffee,	1,700,000
Specie,	1,000,000
Unenumerated articles,	1,096,000
	$12,286,000

Ditto in 1845—

	Value.		Value.
Manufactured cotton goods,	$1,500	Linseed,	300,000
Manufactured silk goods,	150,000	Gunny bags,	110,000
Indigo,	660,000	Drugs and dye stuffs,	150,000
Hides,	3,600,000	Ginger,	40,000
Sugar,	419,000	Cocoa,	170,000
Copper, in pigs or bars,	365,000	Spices,	15,000
Teas,	4,075,000	Hemp,	248,000
Wool,	563,000	Specie,	1,200,000
Coffee,	6,600,000	Unenumerated articles,	2,381,000
Saltpetre,	500,000		
			$21,519,000

It is thus apparent that the increased employment of our tonnage of one hundred and fifty per cent. in this distant transport, has been from the importation of the raw materials for manufacture in our country, and of the increased quantities of coffee and teas; and, no doubt, the increased exportation of our domestic products to those distant places has been promoted by this increase in imports. Those domestic products, were manufactured cotton and woollen goods, lumber and articles of furniture, provisions of all kinds, naval stores, cotton, tobacco, ice, candles, &c.

The same considerations apply to our trade with the other parts of the world, and the following statistical tables will show to what extent our navigating interest has been affected:

	Imports.	Domestic Exports.	Tons of Shipping Employed.
	Value in Dollars.	Value in Dollars.	Value in Dollars.
In the year 1828—			
Our trade with the West Indies,	13,547,000	10,058,000	341,200
" " " Mexico,	4,800,000	522,000	26,000
" " " Madeira and other Islands,	321,000	188,000	8,000
" " " Africa, generally,	250,000	131,000	4,600
" " " the South Seas,	..	81,000	17,000
	18,918,000	10,980,000	398,800
In the year 1845—			
Our trade with the West Indies,	16,194,000	13,880,000	539,000
" " " Mexico,	2,400,000	1,360,000	29,000
" " " Madeira and other Islands,	77,000	228,000	5,000
" " " Africa, generally,	465,000	597,000	10,600
" " " the South Seas,	41,000	352,000	49,400
	19,177,000	16,417,000	633,000
Increase	trifling.	50 per cent.	60 per cent.

Thus proving, that with the same value in imports, we had fifty per cent. increase in the value of our exports of domestic products, and sixty per cent. increase in the amount of tonnage employed. This increase in tonnage is only to be accounted for, from the fact that there has been a change in the character of the articles imported, that is to say, from articles of small bulk and large cost, to articles of large bulk and small cost. The principal articles which have produced this result, are indigo and cotton, which we no longer import in increased quantities; and of sugar, dye woods, molasses, and cocoa—and of these, sugar is the most important.

In the year 1828, our import from the West Indies, was 47,000,000 lbs. brown } sugars.
6,000,000 lbs. white }
Costing....................................$3,200,000
In the year 1845, our import from the West Indies, was 170,000,000 lbs. brown } sugars.
4,000,000 lbs. white }
Costing....................................$6,400,000

Making, against an increase in cost of one hundred per cent., an increase in weight of three hundred and twenty-five per cent.

This diminished cost and increased quantity of sugars imported in 1845, was owing to the increased demand for low cost sugars by the refiners of sugar in this country.

	Imports.	Domestic Exports.	Tons of Shipping Employed.
In the year 1828—	Value in Dollars.	Value in Dollars.	Value in Dollars.
Our trade with ports in the Mediterranean,	4,336,000	2,048,000	54,600
" " " France,....................	8,500,000	7,091,000	63,000
" " " Great Britain,..........	32,801,000	20,091,000	254,200
" " " other parts of Europe,....	11,214,000	5,085,000	136,100
" " " British North American Provinces,......................	447,000	1,618,000	62,000
	57,298,000	35,993,000	569,900
In the year 1845—			
Our trade with ports in the Mediterranean,	4,211,000	4,668,000	74,000
" " " France,....................	15,950,000	11,861,000	118,000
" " " Great Britain,............	42,091,000	47,793,000	541,000
" " " other parts of Europe,....	4,059,000	6,346,000	197,000
" " " British N. A. Provinces,..	1,465,000	5,360,000	1,197,000
	67,776,000	76,028,000	2,127,000
Increase,........................	18 per cent.	110 per cent	375 per cent.

From an examination into the causes of the changes in imports and domestic exports from and to those several parts of the world, it may be observed, that the increased amount of tonnage employed in the year 1845—

To and from the Mediterranean—

Was from the greater quantities of low cost wools, rags, and other crude materials, and fruits from Sicily and Smyrna, and of our agricultural and manufactured products carried there in exchange.

To and from Great Britain and France—

Was only in proportion to the increase in the imports and exports of the same description of articles in the two periods.

To and from the other parts of Europe—

Was from an increase in our domestic exports of about twenty per cent., and at the same time there was a reduction in the imports of more than one hundred and fifty per cent. It will be interesting to note some of the articles of import in which that reduction strikingly appears, viz:

	1828.	1845.
	Value in Dollars.	Value in Dollars.
Manufactures of cotton, wool, and flax,	2,190,000	165,500
Ditto of iron and steel,	2,204,000	677,000
Ditto of glass,	458,000	128,000
Ditto of leather,	330,000	2,100
Ditto of sail cloth,	345,000	186,000
Ditto of linseed oil, &c.,	130,000	13,000
Ditto of cordage,	145,000	54,000
Unmanufactured hemp,	990,000	211,000
Ditto flax,	37,000	31,000
Ditto wool,	97,000	31,000
Ditto rags,	none.	12,000
	6,926,000	1,510,600

Thus showing a reduction in the manufactured goods imported from those countries of more than four hundred per cent., and in the hemp, flax, &c., of more than two hundred per cent.

These facts are certainly, of importance in considering the employment of our shipping from the transport of raw materials, such as cotton, flax, hemp, iron, and coals, coastwise in our own country, and hides, linseed, and other raw materials from abroad, for the manufacture in our country of goods which have taken the place of the foreign manufactured goods imported and consumed by us sixteen years ago.

To and from the British Provinces—

Was from the increased employment, *mostly by British shipping*, in the trade between this country and the Canadas, New Brunswick, and Nova Scotia, the articles transported having been wheat, flour, fish, coal, &c. This subject has been most ably explained by the Hon. Caleb Cushing, in his report to Congress of the 14th April, 1842, to which document we refer for a correct view of it.

We would now call attention to a more particular notice of several articles of import, referred to in our statement, and which are of great importance in the employment of our shipping, viz:

Linseed.

The import of this article the last year, principally from Calcutta, gave freights to our shipping amounting, per estimate, to	$205,000
And the export to England of the oil cake, the part of the seed remaining after the oil has been extracted, gave freights amounting, per estimate, to	50,000
	$255,000

This article has been imported at a duty of five per cent. ad valorem, and the proposition of the Secretary of the Treasury recommends a duty of ten per cent. ad valorem ; at the same time it recommends a duty of twenty per cent. ad valorem on linseed oil, instead of the present duty of twenty-five cents per gallon, which is equal to fifty per cent. ad valorem on its cost. Should this change take place, this employment will be lost, as we shall not have sufficient protection against the policy of Holland, England, and Germany, in their import of that raw material, manufacture of it, and export of the oil. Those countries will supply us, as formerly, with their manufactured linseed oil.

Sugar.

The import of this article the last year from beyond the Cape of Good Hope, has given freights to our shipping amounting to over.........	$100,000
And in payment therefor, on exports of domestic products to those places, to over...	25,000
Making,...	$125,000

This sugar is of too ordinary a quality to be consumed in this country until it has been refined; consequently this branch of our trade would be lost should our refineries of sugar be discontinued.

The import of sugars from Brazils and the West Indies for refining, gave freights to our shipping, the last year, amounting to...............	$437,500

Making the whole freights on foreign sugars imported for refining the last year, $537,500 besides the freights on our exports in exchange for this article.

These sugars now pay a duty of two and one-half cents per pound on the brown, and four cents per pound on the white, and their manufacture in this country is protected by a duty of six cents per pound on foreign refined sugars: this is a protection against the policy of foreign nations and applies particularly to Great Britain and Holland, which nations, in their encouragement to their extensive sugar colonies in the East and West Indies, as well as to their refineries at home, grant a bounty on the export of their home refined sugars, besides a return of the duty on the foreign raw material from which it was refined.

The effect of the change proposed by the Secretary of the Treasury, from the present specific duties on the raw and refined articles, to an equal ad valorem duty, would be to admit the raw material at a duty varying from three-fourths of a cent per pound, to two cents per pound, depending on the fluctuating costs in the East and West Indies, and Brazils. But we could not continue to import raw sugars for refining; *we could not refine them if imported, nor could we even refine the sugars produced in this country;* and for this reason, that the English and Dutch low cost refined sugars would be thrown into our market, whenever these countries had surplus stocks on hand, which would interrupt, and for the time suspend our works, *and without continuous work our establishments cannot be supported.* And whenever the sugar refineries in this country have been destroyed, and we are made dependent on foreign countries for our refined sugars, the prices of that article will be enhanced to suit the refineries in those countries, and severely to the cost of the consumers in this country.

Copper,

In pigs or bars, and copper ores, are imported from Chili and Cuba, and the freights of the past year amounted to about $50,000; about one-half of this crude copper is manufactured into sheathing copper in this country. It is imported free of duty, and foreign manufactured sheathing copper is imported from Great Britain free of duty.

The Secretary of the Treasury recommends a duty of five per cent. ad valorem on those crude articles. If it is imposed, it will prevent their importation for the manufacture of sheathing copper; our supply of that article will be from Great Britain; and when our establishments for the manufacture of this article are demolished, will not the price of this article be higher than it is now under our manufacture? What advantage will it be, excepting to the British manufacturer? As a means of revenue, it will be entirely nugatory.

Our government certainly can derive no advantage from it, and from whence are they to obtain the supply needed for the navy? Will they contract with the British manufacturer for it? If, instead of adopting the Secretary of the Treasury's recommendation, our Government would protect it to the very limited extent of five per cent ad valorem duty on foreign manufactured sheathing copper, leaving the crude article to be imported free of duty, the following change in that trade would result:

Instead of the freights on 2,680 tons of sheathing copper, from Great Britain, at $5 per ton,	$13,400
We should receive the freights on 6,540 tons of pig copper, and copper ore, at $15 per ton,	98,100
Making a difference in freights, of	$84,700

besides the freight on the coal and other articles for the works, and on our exports to Chili and Peru, which trade would be stopped, if we could not take the crude copper and ore in exchange.

Works for the smelting of copper ore have just been established, at great cost, in this country, and if they are not made useless by the proposed duty on it, they will materially lessen the importations of copper in bars, whilst they will increase it in ore; and the following is an estimate of what this change in the trade would produce to our navigation:

The quantity of copper ore, yielding from 20 to 25 per cent. of copper, to make 4,000 tons of copper, (the quantity now annually used,) would be 8,000 tons from Chili, at $15 per ton freight,	$120,000
And 8,000 tons from Cuba, at $7 per ton freight,	56,000
Making an amount of freights of,	$176,000
instead of the freight of the manufactured articles from Great Britain, 4,000 tons, at $5,	20,000
Difference in favour of our own manufacture of,	$156,000

Wool.

This article is imported from Buenos Ayres and Smyrna, principally the cheap wool of the wild sheep of South America, only fit to be manufactured after it has been cleaned of the burs, with which it is filled. Machinery has been constructed in this country to effect that object, and it is now used in the manufacture of low cost woollen fabrics. The present duty is five per cent. ad valorem on its cost, and the proposed alteration of the Secretary of the Treasury, is to make the duty twenty per cent. ad valorem on its cost. It is also proposed to reduce the duty on the imported cheap fabric, from the same wool manufactured abroad, from the present duty of forty per cent. ad valorem, to the duty of twenty-five per cent. ad valorem; and on blankets, from twenty-five per cent. ad valorem, to fifteen per cent. ad valorem. Such alteration would effectually destroy this branch of commerce and manufacture, and render useless the costly works now employed in it.

This movement of a duty prohibiting the importations of this cheap wool, if to protect the wool-growing interest in this country, would be of little avail, should it be adopted together with the reduction on the cheap manufactures from the same wool in Great Britain; for in that event, the same fabrics, from the same raw material, would be placed in our markets, only coming from manufacturing establishments in Great Britain, instead of the manufacturing establishments in this country. Great Britain admits that wool free of any duty, and has the same machinery for cleaning and manufacturing it.

Rags, Hides, Woods of various kinds,

And a variety of other foreign raw materials, imported for our manufactures of paper, leather, boots and shoes, furniture, machinery, &c., on which the Secretary has either proposed new duties, or increased the old, disclose an equally injurious change for the employment of our navigation, from its losing the transportation of these articles.

We should also notice the vastly increased amount of our registered tonnage employed in the coasting trade—in the transport of cotton, hemp, sugar, flour, pork, and other articles of provisions from the South, and iron and coal from the Middle States.

From the foregoing statements respecting our commercial interests, and, connected with them, our manufacturing, mechanical, and, agricultural interests, is it not clear that a leading object of our government should be to protect those interests, and all of them, so that they shall not be prejudiced by the action of foreign nations, seeking to protect themselves and their own subjects, by their commercial policy, at our expense?

In this connexion, allusion may be fairly made to Great Britain, in terms; because it appears that nearly all the foreign navigation in the foreign trade of this country is British, and because "our rulers" now refer us to her *proposed liberal free trade commercial policy*, as affording an example worthy of our imitation.

Would it not be well, in referring to this *liberal example of Great Britain*, to look back at the effects, depicted in the foregoing pages, on our navigating interests, from the commercial arrangements made with Great Britain in 1830, *from the confidence of our Government in the same liberal "right hand of fellowship"* held out to it by that great nation.

The manufactures of our Northern and Middle States are coming now into quick and active competition with those of England in foreign markets; she recognises us as rivals, and has not been slow to perceive the effects upon herself of this new competition. She would gladly check this new opponent; and well understands that her desires in this behalf would be best attained by turning from the channels of manufacture, into those of agriculture, the industry of our people. *And therefore* she offers to receive the products of our soil, free of duty, to minister to the wants of her poorly fed population.

We have had too many reasons to know what England means by a "liberal policy," to be taken in by a name.

If Great Britain can effect such change in our industrial pursuits as she seeks to do, she will effectually promote these five objects:

1st. Get rid of a powerful rival for the raw materials procured in foreign markets.

2d. Get rid of a powerful rival for her manufactured commodities in foreign markets.

3d. Obtain, but not from us, a cheap supply of provisions, whenever the season produces a scanty supply from her own agriculture, for the wants of her poor population.

4th. Obtain a largely increased market for her manufactured commodities.

5th. Obtain increased employment for her shipping, in the increased import of raw materials and export of her manufactured commodities.

Besides accomplishing these ends and securing their collateral benefits in trade, she will do much to make these United States dependent upon herself and on other foreign nations for the common articles of everyday consumption.

Such will be the effects of her "liberal policy" upon a country that now promises, if a proper, fostering, and protecting care is taken of her general interests by her General Government, to become, and to remain, one of the great nations of the earth.

SPEECH OF THE HON. ANDREW STEWART,

OF PENNSYLVANIA.

IN THE HOUSE OF REPRESENTATIVES, MARCH 14th, 1846.

We extract from the speech of the Hon. Andrew Stewart, the following clear exposition of the operation of the tariff on the interests of the farmers of the grain-growing States.

It gives us unfeigned pleasure thus to place on record, for future reference, this inimitable and, as we think, unanswerable document; and we would that a copy of it were in the possession of every farmer in the United States. Mr. Stewart treats the subject in a masterly manner, and fortifies all his arguments with incontrovertible facts.

We should be glad to see some anti-tariff man undertake to answer this speech; but we have no hope of any such attempt. If the tariff is overthrown, it will be by a blind adherence to the mandates of party. Every argument that we have yet seen attempted has been an entire failure. The truth is, as Mr. Stewart has stated, that it is a question whether Englishmen are to have the American market to sustain the Agriculture of England, or whether the American citizen is to have preserved for his use the very best market which the world presents to him. There is no escape from this view of the subject, and we have never seen a more practical or more able vindication of American agricultural interests than is here given.

Speeches of members of Congress have so wide a circulation through the daily press, that we have not thought ourselves justified in devoting our pages to some of those which have been delivered, and which have been highly useful and creditable to their authors; but we are much mistaken, if there is a single reader of the National Magazine who will not agree with us in the opinion, that we could not occupy the same space with a more important exposition, or more conclusive evidence in favour of the policy which it is our highest pleasure to advocate, than will be found in this powerful speech of the Hon. Andrew Stewart.

THE TARIFF AND FARMERS.

I had not intended, said Mr. S., to say one word about the tariff; but I am strongly tempted to state a fact or two, in reply to the gentleman from Virginia. That gentleman dwelt entirely on the benefits of foreign trade. He went altogether in favour of importing foreign goods, and creating a market for the benefit of foreigners. Would our own agriculture be benefited by a process like this? Nothing could more effectually divert the benefit from our own people and pour it in a constant stream upon foreign labour. No American interest was so much benefited by a protective system as that of *agriculture.* The foreign market was nothing, the home market was every thing, to them; it was as one hundred to one. The tariff gave us the great home market, while the gentleman's scheme was to secure us, at best, but the chance of a market abroad, while it effectually destroyed our secure and invaluable market at home. The gentleman says he is very anxious to compete with the pauper labour of Europe. I will tell him one fact: With all the protection we now enjoy, Great Britain sends into this country eight dollars' worth of her agricultural productions, to one dollar's worth of all our agricultural productions (save cotton and tobacco) that she takes from us.

Mr. Bayly. Does that gentleman assert that?

Mr. Stewart. I do—and will prove it.

Mr. Bayly. Then you will prove the returns false which are made by our own government.

Mr. Stewart. No, sir; I will prove it by the returns furnished by Mr. Walker himself in support of the bill which he has laid before the Committee of Ways and Means. Now, I assert, and can prove, that more than half the value of all the British goods imported into this country consist of agricultural products, changed in *form,* converted and manufactured into goods. And I invite a thorough analysis of the facts. I challenge the gentleman to the scrutiny. Take down all the articles in a store, one after another—estimate the value of the raw material, the bread and meat, and other agricultural products, which have entered into their fabrication, and it will be found that one-half and more of their value consists of the productions of the soil—agricultural produce in its strictest sense.

Now, by reference to Mr. Walker's Report, it will be seen that, for twelve years back, we have imported from Great Britain and her dependencies annually 52½ millions of dollars worth of goods, but call it 50 millions, while she took of all our agricultural products, (save cotton and tobacco,) less than two and a half millions of dollars' worth. Thus, then, assuming one-half the value of her goods to be agricultural, it gives us 25 millions of her agricultural produce to 2½ millions of ours taken by her, which is just ten to one; to avoid cavil, I put it at eight to one. To test the truth of his position, he was prepared, if time permitted, to refer to numerous facts. But for the information of the gentleman from Virginia, who is so great a friend to the poor and oppressed farmers, I will tell him that we have imported yearly, for twenty-six years, (so says Mr. Walker's Report,) more than ten millions of dollars' worth of *woollen goods.* Last year we imported $10,666,176 worth. Now, one-half and more of the value of this cloth was made up of wool, the subsistence of labour, and other agricultural productions. The general estimate is, that the wool alone is half. The universal custom among farmers, when they had their wool manufactured on the shares, was to give the manufacturer half the cloth. Thus we import, and our farmers have to pay for, *five* millions of dollars' worth of foreign wool every year in the form of cloth, mostly the production of sheep feeding on the grass and grain of Great Britain, while our own wool is worthless, for want of a market; and this is the policy the gentleman recommends to American farmers. Yes, sir; and the gentleman is not satisfied with *five* millions, but wishes to increase it to *ten* millions a year for foreign wool. Will the gentleman deny this? He dare not. He has declared for Mr. Walker's bill, reducing the duties on woollens nearly one-half, with a view to *increase* the revenue; of course, the imports must be doubled, making the import of cloth twenty millions instead of ten, and of wool ten instead of five millions of dollars per annum.

This was the gentleman's plan to favour the farmers—*British* farmers—by giving them the *American* market. His plan was to buy every thing, sell nothing, and get rich. (A laugh.) What was true as to cloth, was equally true as to every thing else. Take a hat, a pair of shoes, a yard of silk or lace, analyze it, resolve it into its constituent elements, and you will find that the raw material, and the subsistence of labour, and other agricultural products, constituted more than one-half of its entire value. The pauper labour of Europe employed in manufacturing silk and lace got what it eat—no more; and this is what you pay for when you purchase their goods. Break up your home manufactures and home markets, import every thing you eat, and drink, and wear, for the *benefit of the farmers*. Oh! what friends these gentlemen are to the farmers, and mechanics, and labourers, of this country—no, sir, I am wrong, of *Great Britain*.

Now, I ask whether wool is not, in the strictest sense, an agricultural production? And if we import ten millions in cloth, is not five millions of that sum paid for the wool alone—a product of British farmers? As a still stronger illustration of his argument, Mr. S. referred to the article of iron. Last year, according to Mr. Walker's Report, we imported $9,043,396 worth of foreign iron, and its manufactures, mostly from Great Britain, four-fifths of the value of which, as every practical man knew, consisted of agricultural produce—nothing else. Iron is made of ore and coal; and what is the ore and coal buried in your mountains worth? Nothing—nothing at all, unused. What gives it value? The labour of horses, oxen, mules, and men. And what sustained this labour but corn and oats, hay and straw, for the one, and bread, and meat, and vegetables of every kind, for the other? These agricultural products were purchased and consumed, and this made up nearly the whole price of the iron, which the manufacturer received and paid over to the farmers, again and again, as often as the process was repeated. Well, is not iron made in England of the same materials that it is made of here? Certainly; then is not four-fifths of the value of British iron made up of British agricultural produce? and if we purchase nine millions of dollars worth of British iron a year, do we not pay six or seven millions of this sum for the produce of British farmers—grain, hay, grass, bread, meat, and other provisions for man and beast—sent here for sale in the form of iron? He put it to the gentleman from Virginia (Mr. Bayly) to say if this was not true to the letter. He challenged him to deny it, or disprove it, if he could. The gentleman's plan was to break down these great and growing markets for our own farmers, and give our markets to the British; and yet he *professed* to be a friend to American farmers ! ! "From such friends, good Lord deliver *them !*" One remark more on this topic: Secretary Walker informs us that the present duty on iron is 75 per cent., which he proposes to reduce to 30 per cent., *to increase the revenue.* To do this, must he not then double the imports of iron? Clearly he must. Then we must add ten or twelve millions per year to our present imports of iron, and of course destroy that amount of our domestic supply to make room for it. Thus, at a blow, in the single article of iron, this bill is intended to destroy the American markets for at least eight millions of dollars' worth of domestic agricultural produce to be supplied from abroad; and this is the American—not the *British*—system of policy which is now attempted to be imposed upon this country by this *British-hating administration !* Let them do it, and in less than two years there will not be a specie-paying bank in the country. The people and the treasury will be again bankrupt, and the scenes and sufferings of 1840 will return; and with it, as a necessary consequence, the political revolutions of that period.

The home market, Mr. S. contended, was every thing to the farmer, and the foreign market comparatively nothing. Massachusetts alone purchased and consumed fourteen times as much of the grain, flour, and meat of the other States as the United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland, from whom we took fifty millions of dollars worth of manufactures yearly. Massachusetts took 35 millions worth, (exclusive of cotton and tobacco,) while great Britain took but two and a half ! ! Yet, according to the gentleman from Virginia, the foreign market was vastly the most important ! !

Mr. Leake here put this question to Mr. S.: Whether cotton and tobacco were not agricultural products?

Mr. S. Certainly; but they are not our only agricultural products. There are other interests in this country worth looking after and preserving besides cotton and tobacco. But, no doubt, the gentleman concurs with Mr. Secretary Walker, who tells us, in his free trade report, which has so delighted England—and no wonder it has, for he there says we must take more British goods, because, if we do not, "England must pay for our '*bread-stuffs*'" in *specie*, and, "*not having it to spare*, she will bring down, to even a greater extent, the *price of our cotton.*" Yes, "*our* cotton"—there is the rub. The North and West must quit work, sell nothing, and bring every thing from England, and send them our *specie* as long as it lasts, so that England may have "specie *to spare*" for Southern cotton—that's the plan, thus openly and boldly proclaimed by the Secretary and his followers. We of the North and West must send our last dollar to England to buy bread and meat, and grass and grain, in the form of iron and cloth, to increase the price of "*our cotton.*" We must be "hewers of wood and drawers of water" for Great Britain—paupers, slaves, and beggars, that England may have "specie to spare" for Southern cotton. This is the undisguised policy and purpose of the Treasury Report. But Mr. S. would say to these Southern gentlemen: Don't be afraid. You will have your cotton market still. England must have your cotton—she can't do without it at present. But beware; the time may come when England would not want "*our cotton*," and the South, in turn, would cry out for protection. But the gentleman congratulates the West with the prospect of an early repeal of the corn laws. But, in his opinion, if the corn laws were repealed, the people of the West would scarcely get a bushel of their grain into England on any terms.

Mr. BAYLY. Do you mean what you say, that not one bushel will go there?

Mr. STEWART. I will answer the gentleman, by giving him Lord Ashburton's speech in the House of Lords a few days ago. He states that nine-tenths of the grain now imported in Great Britain is supplied from the north of Europe, although they pay a tax of fifteen shillings the quarter; while that from Canada and the United States, passing through Canada, pays but four shillings. Repeal the duty of fifteen shillings, and will they not supply the whole? Most clearly they will. The fact is notorious, that most of our grain and flour now goes to England through her colonial ports, and at colonial duties, thus evading the operation of the corn laws, while the grain and flour from the north of Europe must always pay the highest duties imposed by the corn laws. Hence Lord Ashburton very justly argues, that we must be overwhelmed if the corn laws are repealed; and this great advantage, now enjoyed by Canada and the United States, of importing flour and grain at about one-fourth of the duty paid by the importers from the Baltic and the Black Seas, must cease. Repeal the corn laws—put them on an equal footing with us, and is not the question settled, and the market lost to our grain and flour in all time to come? Nothing can be clearer. And yet gentlemen exult in the prospect of a repeal of the corn laws, and are ready to sacrifice the whole of our manufactures and home markets to bring it about. Such will be the operation of the repeal of the corn laws on American agriculture, and such is the statement of Lord Ashburton, who perhaps knows as much about the matter as even the learned gentleman from Virginia. But this is not all. This opinion of Lord Ashburton is sustained by the most intelligent merchants in Great Britain. Such is the uniform tenor of the testimony recently taken before a select committee of the House of Commons on this subject. *Henry Cleaver Chapman*, one of the witnesses, and one of the most intelligent men in the kingdom, says: "Repeal the corn laws, and the growing trade with Canada and the *Western States of America* will be crushed by the cheaper productions of the Baltic and the Black Sea; consequently," he adds, "*America*, Canada, and British shipping, would receive a severe and decisive blow" by the repeal of the corn laws. But still the gentleman from Virginia exults in the prospect of the repeal of the corn laws, and boasts of the market it will open to our Western farmers, to whom, however, he will not give one dollar for their rivers and improvements—not a cent—but is anxious to seduce them into this British free trade *trap*. But he would say to the West, "timeo danaos," trust your friends, and beware of your enemies. Look at the boasted foreign market, what is it? Comparatively nothing. Look at facts. The agricultural productions of the United States, exclusive of cotton and tobacco, is estimated at one thousand millions per year. Our exports to all the world amounted last year to $11,195,515. Of this, Great Britain took about two and a half. All the rest was consumed at home. So the foreign markets of the world amounted to 11 millions, and the home market to 989 millions. Yet the gentleman had just pronounced the foreign markets every thing to the farmers, and the home markets comparatively nothing. But another fact. Our exports of manufactures last year, including those of wood, amounted to $13,429,166. Assuming, as in the case of British manufactures, that one-half their value is made up of American agricultural produce, then we export nearly *seven* millions of dollars' worth of agricultural produce, in the form of manufactures, which does not glut or injure the foreign markets, for our flour and grain, in its original form. To use a familiar illustration: Western farmers send their corn, hay, and oats, thousands of dollars' worth, every year, to the Eastern market, not in its rude and original form, but in the form of hogs and horses; they give their hay-stacks life and legs, and make them trot to market with the farmer on their back. (A laugh.) So the British converted their produce, not into hogs or horses, but into cloth and iron, and send it here for sale. And, viewing the subject in this light, he could demonstrate that there was not a State in the Union, that did not now consume *five* dollars' worth of British agricultural produce, to *one* dollar's worth she consumes of theirs. Time would not permit him to go into details; but he would furnish the elements from which any one could make the calculation. Assuming that *consumption* and *exportation* are in proportion to population, then we import 50 millions of British goods, and 25 millions—one-half—is agricultural produce. We export to England agricultural produce (excluding cotton and tobacco) 2½ millions. Divide these sums, 25 and 2½ millions, by 223, the number of Representatives, and it gives $112,108 as the amount of British agricultural produce consumed in the form of goods in each Congressional district; and $11,210 as their export to Great Britain of agricultural produce. This gives the proportion of ten to one. Yet gentlemen are not satisfied, and wish still further to increase the import of British goods, and still further prostrate and destroy the American farmer, and mechanic, and labouring man, to favour foreigners. To show the effect upon currency, as well as agriculture, suppose the gentleman from Virginia (Mr. Bayly) wants a new coat; he goes to a British importer and pays him 20 dollars, hard money, and hard to get. England takes none of your rag money. (A laugh.) Away it goes, in quick time. We see no more of it; as far as circulation is concerned, the gentleman might as well have thrown it into the fire. I want a coat. I go to the American manufacturer and buy $20 worth of American broadcloth. (He wears no other, and he would compare coats with the gentleman on the spot.) (A laugh.) Well, the manufacturer, the next day, gave it to the farmer for wool; he gave it to the shoemaker, the hatter, and blacksmith; they gave it back to the farmer for meat and bread; and here it went from one to another. You might perhaps see his busy and bustling $20 note five or six times in the course of a day. This made money plenty. But where was the gentleman's hard money? Vanished; gone to reward and enrich the wool-growers and farmers, shoemakers, hatters, and blacksmiths of England. Now, I go for supporting the American farmers and mechanics, and the gentleman goes for the British—that's the difference. Can the gentleman deny it? There are but two sides in this matter, the *British* and the *American* side; and the simple question is, which side shall we take? The great struggle is between the *British* and *American* farmers and mechanics for the American market, and we must decide which shall have it.

Mr. S. would here take occasion to state a *fact* that would startle the American people.

The *British manufacturers* have, at this moment, possession of this

Capitol. Yes, sir, I tell you and the country—one of the principal committee rooms in this house is now, and has been for weeks past, occupied by a gentleman formerly residing in Manchester, England, who has a vast number, perhaps hundreds, of specimens of goods sent from Manchester, (priced to suit the occasion,) to be exhibited to members of Congress to enlighten their judgements, and, in the language of his letter of instruction from Manchester of the 3d January, 1846, accompanying these specimens, to enable them "to arrive at just conclusions in regard to the proposed alterations in the present tariff." Yes, sir, agents, specimens, and letters, from Great Britain, instructing us how to make a tariff to suit the British. Mr. S. here expressed the hope that the people of the North would send on specimens of American manufactures, to be also exhibited in the Capitol, not only to show their perfection and extent, but to correct, on the spot, the false representations made by these Manchester men and their agents in regard to the *character* and *prices* of British and American goods. Speaking of the President's message, this Manchester letter writer exclaims: "A second Daniel come to judgement, a second Richard Cobden;" and so delighted were they in England with Mr. Walker's celebrated free trade report, that it was ordered to be printed by the House of Lords. After all this, having our President and Secretary on their side, they ought to have been content, without sending their letters of instruction here, to direct us what kind of a tariff they wish us to pass. But if their chancellor had sent us a revenue bill, he could not have furnished one to suit Great Britain better than the one furnished by the Secretary of the Treasury. Parliament would pass it by acclamation. Sir Robert Peel understands his business; he proposes to take the duties off bread-stuffs and raw materials of all kinds used by their manufacturers, and remove every burden, so as to enable them to meet us and beat us in our own markets and in the markets of the world, where Yankee competition is beginning to give them great uneasiness. Last year, we exported hundreds of thousands of dollars worth of cotton goods into the British East Indies, and beat the British in their own markets, after paying discriminating duties, imposed to keep us out, first 8, then 10, finally 15 per cent. In this great struggle, Sir Robert Peel comes to the rescue; he repeals the duty on cotton, and wool, and bread, and meat, and every thing used by British manufacturers, to enable them to go ahead in this struggle with the Americans. And what does Mr. Walker do? Just the reverse. He proposes to take off all protective duties, and imposes heavy burdens on the raw materials, dye-stuffs, &c., used by our manufacturers, so as effectually to prostrate and break them down. Sir Robert Peel takes burdens off his steed, while Sir Robert Walker piles bags of sand on his—then crack their whips—clear the road—a fair race! (A laugh.) Such is the difference between British and American policy. Sir Robert Peel's present system furnishes powerful arguments for adhering to our protective system. His object is not to favour, but to beat us; and our course is not to defeat, but to favour his purpose. This will not only be the effect of the tariff proposed by our Secretary, but it is its open and avowed purpose and design. Is it not the proclaimed purpose of the message and report to increase the importation of British goods, and of course, to that extent, destroy American supply? Does not the Secretary propose to reduce the protective duties more than one-half for the purpose of *increasing* revenue? And if the revenue is *increased* by *reducing* duties one-half, must not the imports be more than doubled? This is self-evident; and if you double your imports of foreign goods, must you not destroy, to that extent, American supply? Most certainly, unless the Secretary can, in his wisdom, devise a plan to make people eat, drink, and wear double as much as they now do. But where will we find money to pay for them? There's the rub. But startling and extraordinary as it may appear, our Secretary, for the first time in the history of the world, has boldly and openly avowed it as the object of Government to break down and destroy its own manufactures for the purpose of making way for those of foreigners. In the very first paragraph of his argumentative report, he sets out with stating that the revenue of the 1st quarter of this year is two millions less than the 1st quarter of the last, and that this has been occasioned by the *substitution of highly protected American manufactures for foreign imports;* and this evil, this terrible evil, this *American* Secretary proposes to remedy by reducing the protective duties, and thus breaking up this abominable business of "*substituting domestic products*," made by *American* labour, out of *American* produce, for *British* goods, made by *British* labour, out of *British* produce. Oh! but he hates the *British*. Now, sir, this is not only the doctrine of his *text*, but it runs through his whole sermon of 957 pages. No wonder it was printed by the House of Lords: and let our Secretary carry through this bill, and Queen Victoria would gladly transfer the seals from Sir Robert Peel to Sir Robert Walker, for he will have rendered her a greater service than any other man, dead or living.

But this is not only the doctrine of the Treasury report, but of the message itself. The revenue standard laid down is the message aims a death blow at all American industry. It suggests a kind of "*sliding scale*," so that whenever any branch of American industry begins to beat the foreigner, and supply the market, and thereby diminish imports and revenue, this is evidence that the duty is too high and ought to be reduced, so as to let in the foreign rival productions; but let the President speak for himself—here is his revenue standard in his own words:

"The precise point in the ascending scale of duties, at which it is ascertained from experience that the revenue is greatest, is the maximum rate of duty which can be laid for the bona fide purpose of collecting money for the support of Government. To raise the duties higher than that point, and thereby diminish the amount collected, is to levy them for protection merely, and not for revenue. As long, then, as Congress may gradually increase the rate of duty on a given article, and the revenue is increased by such increase of duty, they are within the revenue standard. When they go beyond that point, and as they increase the duties, the revenue is diminished or destroyed, the act ceases to have for its object the raising of money to support Government, but is for protection merely."

What is this but a rule to favour foreigners, and break down Americans? The moment the American by his superiour industry and skill begins to succeed, then the duty must come down, so as to increase foreign imports and revenue. This is the plain and inevitable operation of the rule, and who would go into manufacturing under such an anti-American rule as this, making it death by the law—certain and inevitable. As an illustration, take iron for instance. Owing to the rapid increase of iron works in the United States, the import of iron has been greatly reduced; then the Executive rule applies—down with the duties, so as to increase imports and revenue. Accordingly, Mr. Walker proposes to reduce the duty, which, he says, is now 75 per cent., to 30 per cent., so as to increase the revenue. Well, to do this, he must more than double the imports, now amounting to more than eight millions a year, and thus he must import 16 millions of dollars worth of iron instead of eight—destroy eight millions of American manufacture to make way for the foreign, and thus import 12 millions of dollars worth of foreign (mostly English) grain and other produce used in the manufacture of this iron; for the fact is incontestible, that more than three-fourths of the value of iron is made up of the produce of the soil. And this is the policy to favour American *farmers* and American *labourers!* Throw the plough out of the furrow, and turn labour out to starve—to make way for British goods, and increase revenue!

Mr. S. said he had not time at present, but he would avail himself of the first proper occasion, to show, as he thought he could most clearly, that all the theories of the Secretary and his followers in favour of their free trade policy were not only false and unfounded, but that exactly the reverse of those theories was true. He referred to the theories that "protection was for the benefit of manufacturers at the expense of the farmers and labourers of the country;" that "protection increased the price of manufactured goods, and reduced the price of labour and produce;" that it "favoured monopoly and wealth at the expense of the poor;" that "reducing duties would increase revenue," &c. He could scarcely speak of such gross absurdities in respectful terms. What? Favour invested capital by building up competition, and increasing the supply of the articles they had to sell? Injure the farmers by doubling the demand for their produce, raw materials and bread-stuffs of every kind? Oppress and rob the consumer by giving him goods at one-fourth of their former price? Reduce wages by doubling the demand for labour—labour of men, women, and children? Yes, sir, increase the price of goods by doubling the supply, and reduce the price of agricultural produce by doubling the demand? Favour monopolies by building up competition, the only thing to destroy it? Such are the absurd theories of free trade. But gentlemen must first reverse all the laws of trade—the great and universal law, that "demand and supply regulate prices;" a law as universal and invariable in its operation, as the law that governs the solar system, must not only be repealed, but reversed in its operations, before gentlemen could sustain any of these absurdities.

The clock admonished him that his time was out—he would avail himself of the moment left to warn gentlemen. If they would allow him to prophesy, he would say: Gentlemen, pass this Treasury bill, approved, as he understood, by the *Cabinet*—bring back the scenes of 1840—restore your twenty per cent. tariff—bankrupt your treasury—paralyze your national industry—break down your farmers, manufacturers, and mechanics, by *importing goods and exporting money*—pass this bill, and in eighteen months you will scarcely have a specie-paying bank, or a specie dollar left, in the country. Pass this bill, and you not only bring back the scenes, but I repeat, you will bring with them the political revolutions, of 1840. Again will be heard, throughout the land, the cry of "*Change! change! any change must be for the better.*" Political revolutions are the fruits of popular suffering and discontent; in prosperity the cry is, "*Let well enough alone.*"

A VOICE. Then, as a Whig, you ought to go for the new tariff.

Yes, said Mr. S., if I was like some gentlemen on this floor—if I loved my *party* more than my *country*, I would; but as I love my country more than my party, I will not. If it were not for the lash and drill of party discipline, this "*British bill*" would find few advocates on this floor. It was the bantling of party—the illegitimate offspring of the Baltimore Convention, that Pandora's box whence originated most of the troubles that now afflict this country. But he again warned gentlemen—pass this bill, and, in the strong language of a Democratic Senator, on a late occasion, it will sink "*the party* so low that the arm of resurrection could never reach it"—so low that——(Here the hour having expired, the chairman's hammer fell, and Mr. S. resumed his seat.)

THE EFFECTS OF THE SUB-TREASURY

UPON THE PROSPERITY OF THE COUNTRY.

OUR Government is a government of the people. It was instituted, not for its own sake, but for the good of the community—to guard the rights, secure the interests, and promote the prosperity of the body politic. Any attempt, therefore, to separate the government from the people, is an effort to sap the foundation of our free institutions, and to resolve our government into a monarchy. We have no disposition, at this time, to intermeddle with politics, as such, nor to enter into the mere bickerings of party, but shall confine ourselves to the great subject of public interest. We appear as the agent of the people, and shall advocate their interests against whatever may paralyze their industry, and impair their prosperity.

Entertaining these views, and seeking these ends, we look with jealousy upon every scheme, which seeks the interest of the government, as though it were something distinct from that of the people. On this ground we object to a mere *revenue* tariff. We protest against it, because it disregards the prosperity of the country, and seeks no higher end than the mere fillling of the public coffers. We protest against it, because it seems to imply that our government was established for its own sake, and that its sole duty is to guard its own interests, and supply its own wants. We protest against it, because it overlooks the great principle that the people's rights and prosperity are the grand objects to be promoted.

On the same ground we object to the sub-treasury scheme. It rests on the principle that the government has interests distinct from those of the people, and that, so far as the currency is concerned, its first and sole duty consists in providing itself with means of support, and that, in collecting, keeping, and disbursing the revenue, it should consult its own interest, regardless of that of the people. Such a doctrine would have appeared sufficiently strange to the fathers of the republic, who, in establishing our constitution, and administering our laws, supposed that one great object for which they were instituted, was to furnish the people with a sound circulating medium, and to facilitate business transactions between distant parts of the country. But the sub-treasury goes further than this.

It is not content with neglecting the public interest, and withholding aid from the people; it goes further, and inflicts a positive injury upon them. It embodies not only sins of omission, but those of commission. Instead of providing the people with a currency, it actually hoards up the people's money, and keeps it from circulation; instead of collecting the revenue in such a manner as to give the community the least trouble and inconvenience, it subjects them to the greatest inconvenience, and visits upon them vexatious exactions, such as malignant litigants require of each other—the payment of all dues in *specie.*

The effects of this scheme upon the currency must be obvious. By withdrawing a large amount of specie from circulation, and from the banks, the amount of the circulating medium will be greatly reduced, and the value of money will consequently be increased. The natural and necessary effect of this will be to augment the riches of those who are already rolling in wealth, and to depress the poor and the labouring classes. No system can be better calculated to build up a moneyed aristocracy on the ruins of the labour of the country. By increasing the value of money, and diminishing the wages of labour, it will tend directly to make the rich richer, and the poor poorer. Every dollar which the government hoards, will diminish the amount of circulation three or four times that sum. By the bank returns, it will be seen that the bills in circulation exceed the specie in their vaults as three to one; every dollar of specie, therefore, which the government locks up in its iron safes, not only keeps that dollar out of circulation, but at the same time reduces the circulation of bank notes three dollars. On this plan the government, like an angry step-dame, not merely refuses to aid the people in the transaction of their business, but, by exacting specie, subjects them to inconveniences, which no honourable merchant would impose upon another. Let any merchant, in any of our cities, attempt to enforce specie payment in all cases of indebtedness to him, and he would not only lose his business, but he would be hissed in the streets. We do not intend to appeal to passions and prejudices; but for a government like ours—a free government—one instituted for the common good—a government which has been compelled, at different periods, to sustain itself by the sale of its own lands, and the circulation of its own paper—for such a government to embarrass the business community, by refusing the notes of specie-paying banks, and exacting gold and silver in all cases, is an infliction upon the interests of the people which they had no reason to expect, and which would not have been submitted to in the better days of the republic.

We now propose to show the effect of the sub-treasury upon the monetary affairs of the country. By the report of the Secretary of the Treasury, submitted to Congress at the commencement of the session, it appears that there was in the treasury on the 1st of July, 1844, $7,859,400, and on the 1st of July, 1845, $7,658,300; and the official published statements for the months of January, February, March, and April, show that the average amount on deposit is $10,000,000. This would make a general average of nearly $9,900,000 in the treasury. And in addition to this, there is always a considerable sum in the hands of postmasters, and other disbursing agents of the government. But as the revenue is, perhaps, a little more abundant at the present time than it may be in future, and as we do not intend to carry our objection too far, we will estimate the average amount in the treasury and in the hands of disbursing agents at $8,000000. This, of course, cannot be in specie, and this amount must be abstracted from the circulation of the country. But this is not all. Every person who is, or may be, indebted to the government, knowing that nothing but coin will be received in payment, must be hoarding up specie against the day of payment. I am aware that the merchants, who pay the greatest amount of the revenue, do their business through the banks where they make their deposites. But this does not alter the case at all. Whether the specie is locked up in the vaults of individuals or in the vaults of the banks, it is equally kept out of circulation. It requires no argument to show that the specie laid by, by an individual, is lost to the community so far as circulation is concerned. And it is equally true of the banks; specie deposited with them, can furnish no basis for circulation. The banks know full well that when the merchant has duties to pay at the custom-house, specie will be required; and that, if their notes are in circulation, they will be thrown in upon them, and they must be redeemed with coin. Under these circumstances, the money deposited with the banks will be as idle, and of as little value to the community, as though it were hoarded in the coffers of the miser. The amount of specie thus held in suspense, directly and indirectly, cannot be less than $4,000,000, one-half the amount ordinarily in the treasury. This, added to the amount in the treasury, would make the gross sum of $12,000,000. The whole amount of specie in the country may safely be estimared at $84,000,000. According to this calculation, one-seventh of the whole specie in the country will be constantly kept out of circulation, and its use lost to the country. Thus the government, like the unprofitable servant in the parable, hides $12,000,000 of treasure in the earth, so that the owners, the people, cannot receive it with interest.

But the effect of this system extends still further. Every dollar of specie that is hoarded, calls in three dollars of bank notes, and hence the twelve millions of specie locked up by this new system, will reduce the circulating medium some forty millions, which is more than one-third of the bank circulation of the country. Let this system go into operation, and it requires no spirit of prophecy to predict its effects.

We shall not examine this question in its bearing upon the government itself. The cost of collection and transfer—the insecurity of the money—the increase of executive patronage—these all furnish strong objections to the system, and show the impolicy of its adoption. But it is our purpose to show its effect upon the general prosperity of the country.

No errour can be greater than that which sometimes prevails, that the question of the currency affects the condition of the capitalists alone. It is true that they have an interest in this question, but their interest is antagonistical to that of the labour of the country. The poor man has as direct an interest in the state of the currency, as any class whatever. When the currency is deranged, and the circulation curtailed, the rich capitalist realizes the greatest per cent. on his money. The value of money, like that of any other commodity, is regulated by the demand. When money is scarce it commands a high rate of interest, and when it is abundant it can be had for a less sum. It is perfectly manifest, therefore, that when money is plenty business will be active, and labour will be in demand, and will command the highest price. Any system which hoards the public money, increases its value, impairs enterprise, and so lessens the demand and the wages of labour. In this manner the sub-treasury scheme tends directly to build up the capitalists, and to depress the labourers. By raising the price of money, it paralyzes the enterprising portion of the community, who are generally men of limited means, and who, more than any other class, give employment to the poor. This affects directly the labouring classes, and diminishes their means of subsistence.

The value of any system of finance, may be safely tested by its effect upon the labour of the country. The wages of labour are a sure index to general prosperity. When there is a good demand for labour, and the rate of wages is high, the country is prosperous; but when there is but little demand for labour, and the wages are low, we have the surest evidence that prosperity has departed. These remarks are not only justified by observation, but demonstrated by the fact that the labour of the country amounts annually to at least one-sixth of the entire wealth of the country. Let all labour be suspended for five or six years at farthest, and let the expenses of the people go on at their present rate, and it would absord all the wealth of the nation. Assuming the annual labour of the country at one sixth of its wealth, it will be seen at once, that whatever reduces the wages of labour, must affect materially the wealth of the nation.

We have endeavoured to show that the sub-treasury scheme, by reducing the circulating medium at least one-third, must reduce the wages of labour. This will follow, as necessarily as effects follow their causes. Now, if this reduction of wages should amount to only twenty-four per cent., it would, in a single year, reduce the value of the property in the country at least four per cent. This must follow, of course, unless the labouring classes are put upon a short allowance, and so deprived of many of the comforts of life which they now enjoy. We regard the sub-treasury plan as a war upon the industry of the country; and since the labouring classes will be the first to feel its effects, it will prove to be emphatically a war upon the poor, upon those who have no capital but their ability to toil. This scheme, carried out, will bring the labouring classes in this country to that state of dependance and subserviency, to which they are reduced in the Old World. In fact, if I were to devise a plan by which to exalt the rich and depress the poor, I would establish the series of measures which have been proposed. I would, in the first place, repeal the tariff, so that our labourers might be driven from their workshops and other places of employment. I would then establish, as far as possible, a metallic currency, that money might be rendered more scarce, and then, lest it should be so abundant that the poor man could obtain a small share, I would institute the sub-treasury, that it might be locked up in the vaults of the government.

Such, it appears to me, must be the effect of that policy. Let the sub-treasury go into operation, and the public will see, and feel too, its withering influence. The money market will be deranged, business in a greater or less degree will become stagnant, labour will seek in vain for employment, and the price of every thing but money will fall. The rich, with their millions and half millions will reap an abundant harvest, and the rest of the community will suffer by the change. Such a state of things will follow the sub-treasury, and will continue until some new policy is resorted to. And what will that new policy be? If the friends of the sub-treasury remain in power, they will so modify that system as to convert it into an *exchange bank*. In this way, we shall have a government bank, more objectionable than any which has ever existed—a bank owned by the government, and managed exclusively by political partisans. In this way, not only all the patronage of office, but all the patronage of money accommodation, would be put into the hands of the ruling party. With such an engine at their command—with such ability to buy up and corrupt the community, any administration could render itself too formidable to be restrained in any of its ambitious schemes. We cannot better express our views upon the evil and dangerous tendency of such a policy, than by quoting from a report made in Congress, in 1830, by that intelligent and stern democrat, Mr. McDuffie, of South Carolina:

"But the patronage resulting from the appointment—the annual appointment of five hundred agents, great as it would doubtless be, would be insignificant and harmless, when compared with that which would result from the dispensation of bank accommodations to the standing amount of at least fifty millions of dollars! The mind almost instinctively shrinks from the contemplation of an idea so ominous to the purity of the government and the liberties of the people. No government of which the committee have any knowledge, except, perhaps, the despotism of Russia, was ever invested with a patronage at once so prodigious in its influence, and so dangerous in its character. In those desperate financial extremities, no other European government has ever ventured upon an experiment so perilous. If the whole patronage of the British Monarchy were concentrated in the hands of the American Executive, it may be well doubted, whether the public liberty would be so much endangered by it, as it would by this vast pecuniary machine, which would place in the hands of every administration fifty millions of dollars, as a fund for rewarding political partisans.

"The inevitable tendency of a government bank to involve the country in a paper system, is not, in the opinion of the committee, the greatest objection to it. The powerful, and in the hands of a bad administration, the irresistible and corrupting influence which it would exercise over the elections of the country, constitutes an objection more imposing than all others united. No matter by what means an administration might get into power—with such a tremendous engine in their hands, it would be almost impossible to displace them, without some miraculous interposition of Providence."

Here, then, are the alternatives which, on the sub-treasury plan, will be presented. The people must either be content with a deranged and very limited currency, such as will paralyze industry, and produce great distress, or they must be content to clothe the government with a power which will almost necessarily convert it into despotism. What then is the dictate of wisdom in relation to that scheme? If it be sustained, we shall be subject to one or both of the evils mentioned—evils which cannot be tolerated by an enlightened and free people. The only wise course, then, is to reject the system altogether; to discard it, as a relic of despotism, which, though suited to the dark ages, is but ill adapted to this age and country.

THE WAGES OF LABOUR.

WHENEVER facts are sought for and obtained, in answer to any of the sweeping, false assertions of Mr. Secretary Walker, abundant evidence is at hand to overthrow them.

In the body of his Report, (Document No. 6, of the House of Representatives,) will be found the following sentence:

"An appeal has been made to the poor by the friends of protection, on the ground that it augments the wages of labour. In reply, it is contended that the wages of labour have not augmented since the tariff of 1842, and that in some cases they have diminished."

In addition to the testimony we have already offered on this subject, at pages 927, 928, and 948, of our March number, we now present the following statements, from three of the extensive cotton manufacturing companies of New England: two in New Hampshire, and one in Massachusetts.

Also, a certificate from five respectable master masons of this city. Evidence of this kind can be multiplied to any extent, and it is our intention, from time to time, to show forth the unfounded assertions of Mr. Walker, because we wish to place on record, for future reference, his total ignorance upon the subjects upon which he dares to insult the intelligence of his fellow citizens.

There is not, we will venture to say, a single man, in any way connected with the employment of labourers, in any branch of industry, who does not know that the price of labour has much advanced since the passage of the tariff of 1842. And what is of equal importance, that the demand for labour has increased in a still greater ratio. We ask particular attention to what the certificate we now offer from the six master masons of this city proves on this subject, namely, that in addition to the rise in the wages since 1842, there have been employed from fifty to seventy-five per cent. more hands than there were from 1838 to 1842.

The real truth of the matter is, that the whole question of protection or no protection, is a question of labour. It is whether American labour is to furnish us with a large portion of the necessities and comforts of life, or whether they are to be furnished by foreign labour. Connected with this, is also the fact, that in this country labour is, when protected, amply rewarded, well fed, well clothed, and educated; that as long as it is protected it will remain so, and can only be reduced to ruin and despair, when, for want of protection, it has to compete with the degraded labour of Europe, where the labourer cannot obtain the common necessaries of life.

From the Boston Courier, April 9.

PRICES OF LABOUR.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE COURIER:

When the honourable Secretary of the Treasury declared, in his annual report, that the wages of labour were lower *since*, than *previous* to the passage of the tariff law of 1842, I was surprised, and took the liberty, in one of my letters to Mr. Rives of Virginia, to comment upon a statement founded in errour and ignorance. I was, however, not less astonished to see several articles in the Washington Union, (the government paper,) endorsing the statement of Mr. Walker. Now, I apprehend there is not a mechanic or labouring man in New England, or the Middle States, who does not know that wages have been materially advanced since the passage of the tariff law of 1842. The beneficent effects of the tariff were not sensibly felt till late in the year 1843, or early in the year 1844, and the full effect of the protection given to American labour has not been realized till this present year, which promises a higher reward to all classes of labour than has been experienced for many years past.

I have obtained from the agents of three extensive manufactories of cotton, situated in three large manufacturing towns, viz: Lowell, Manchester and Nashua—the two latter in New Hampshire—the following statements upon the subject of wages, which I hope will satisfy Mr. Walker and his friends that the assertion he made is erroneous, and that the sources from which he draws his information cannot be relied upon. I do not believe any thing is gained, on either side, by extravagant statements or reckless assertions. I do not intend to put forth a fact, as such, that cannot be sustained by proof. I could give you the rate of wages in the various mechanical trades, as well as the prices paid to labourers on the railroads under construction in 1841, 1842, and 1843, and at the present time; but I leave that matter to those of our fellow citizens who have the demonstration in their own persons.

The fact of an advance in the wages of labour, in most of the industrial pursuits, of more than 25 per cent., is too notorious to be argued. If the wages of labour in Lowell are not higher now than previous to the passage of the law in question, how can we account for the following results of the Savings Institution of that city?

Amount of Deposites in the Savings Bank at Lowell.

In 1841,	448,190	dollars.
1842,	478,365	"
1843,	462,650	"
1844,	591,910	"
1845,	730,890	"

It will be noticed that in 1844, when the earnings increased, the deposites were augmented, and I doubt not the present year will show a yet larger annual increase of deposites.

Whatever Congress may, in their wisdom, do with the tariff, I still maintain that the project of Mr. Walker, if adopted, will reach, disastrously, the business and occupations of all classes, and finally fall with great severity upon the labour of the country.

I will thank you to publish this note, with the statements that accompany it, and shall also feel obliged to the editors of the Washington Union to give it a place in their paper.

I remain dear sir,
Your obedient servant,
ABBOTT LAWRENCE.

Boston, March 21, 1846.

Hon. Abbott Lawrence:

Dear Sir—In answer to your inquiries, as to the advance in the price of labour at the Cotton Mills in Manchester, N. H., I send you the enclosed data, showing, in figures, (for the accuracy of which I vouch,) the exact rate of advance since the time when the tariff bill of 1842 began to produce its effects upon labour. The result shows a greater rise in wages than I expected to find before I made the investigation, and is much more than sufficient to sustain the correctness of your assertions upon this subject, which, though cautious and within the bounds of truth, have not escaped, I am surprised to see, a public denial. In the Stark Mills, the average wages of all the girls there employed, (over and above their board,) was, in February, 1843, only $1 46 per week, and in the same month in 1846, $1 93 per week, or nearly 33 per cent. increase; and the annexed table of the comparative average wages (exclusive of board) of the girls in the Amoskeag Mill, for the month of January, in the four successive years, 1842, 1843, 1844, 1845, 1846, employed in the different processes of manufacturing cloth, exhibits a similar result, viz:

Average Wages paid the Operatives in the Amoskeag New Mill, in the month of January, in each year, since starting up:

	Carding.	Spinning.	Weaving.	Dressing.
Mill No. 1, Jan., 1842,.....	$1 51	$1 33	$1 61	$2 20
" 1843,.....	1 57	1 41	1 74	2 30
" 1844, ...	1 69	1 35	2 02	2 55
" 1845,.....	1 87	1 36	2 09	2 56
" 1846,.....	1 84	1 61	2 66	2 78
Gain in four years,........	21 per cent.	21 per cent.	65 per cent.	38 per cent.

Very respectfully yours,
W. AMORY.

LOWELL, March, 14, 1846.

HON. ABBOTT LAWRENCE:

Dear Sir—On examining the pay rolls of the Lawrence Manufacturing Company, I find that all the female job help, in the mills of said company, worked, between the second Saturday of November, 1842, and the second Saturday of February, 1843, 48,730 days, and received for wages $23,418 90—it being at the rate of $48\frac{5}{10}$ cents per day, or $1 63 per week, clear of board, at $1 25 per week.

All the female job hands employed in the mills of said company, between the second Saturday of November, 1845, and the second Saturday of February, 1847, worked $37,841\frac{3}{4}$ days, and received for wages $19,724 11—it being at the rate of $55\frac{3}{10}$ cents per day, or $2 05 per week, clear of board.

I have selected the last half of our last six months, because, in consequence of the starting of the new mill, I am able to institute a broader comparison than I could have done by selecting an earlier period. Still, our No. 1 mill is excluded from the last statement, because it is but just re-started, and the help are not yet generally paid by job prices. In 1842, old hands were abundant at $1 50 per week and board, whereas, now, it is extremely difficult to get them at $2 00 per week and board.

Very respectfully,
JOHH AIKEN, Agent,
Lawrence Manufacturing Company.

HON. ABBOTT LAWRENCE:

Dear Sir,—The readiest and most satisfactory way in which I can answer your inquiries, is, to take from my files the enclosed monthly statements, which are made regularly for the examination of the Directors of the Jackson Company. They afford the best possible testimony in support of your assertions, respecting the increase of wages.

I remain, very respectfully,
Your obedient servant and friend,
JAMES S. AMORY, Treasurer
Jackson Company.

Boston, March 24th, 1846.

Average Wages of the Female Operatives for the four weeks ending April 15, 1843:

	EMPLOYMENT.	Number of days worked.	No. of girls who worked all the time.	Amount paid.	Average wages per week.	Average through the Mill.
MILL No. I.	Carding,........	680.75	28.36	$304 15	$1 43	$1 41
	Spinning,.......	911.50	37.98	397 47	1 37	*Weaving.*
	Weaving,.......	1,723.00	71.79	730 11	1 29	3 Looms,......$1 29
	Warping,......	155.50	6.48	72 85	1 56	4 do. 2 12
	Dressing,......	184.50	7.69	108 91	2 29	2 do. wide, 1 67
	Drawing in,....	98.50	4.11	49 08	1 73	Others per week, 1 01
MILL No. II.	Carding,........	576.75	24.03	259 93	1 45	$1 47
	Spinning,.......	785.75	32.87	346 92	1 39	
	Weaving,.......	1,536.75	64 03	680 06	1 40	*Weaving.*
	Warping,.......	110.75	4.61	64 47	2 30	3 Looms,......$1 67
	Dressing,.......	150.00	6.25	85 41	2 16	4 do. 2 19
	Drawing in,.....	85.25	3.25	39 23	1 77	Others per week, 1 32

JAMES A. DUPEE,
for EDMUND PARKER, Agent.

Jackson Co., New Hampshire, May 12, 1843.

Average Wages of the Female Operatives for the four weeks ending Feb. 21, 1846:

	EMPLOYMENT.	Number of days worked.	No. of girls who worked all the time.	Amount paid.	Average wages per week.	Average through the Mill.
MILL No. I.	Carding,...	650.00	27.08	$328 86	$1 79	
	Spinning,.......	1,119.00	46.63	545 00	1 67	$2 05
	Weaving,.......	1,746.25	72.76	1,050 50	2 36	
	Warping,......	154.25	6.42	87 33	2 15	
	Dressing,......	265.50	11.06	147 43	2 08	
	Drawing in,....	100.75	4.20	63 26	2 51	
MILL No. II.	Carding,........	458.00	19.08	233 92	$1 81	
	Spinning,.......	1,108.25	46.18	513 41	1 53	$2 03
	Weaving,......	1,615.25	67.30	968 03	2 35	
	Warping,......	146.50	6.10	87 90	2 35	
	Dressing,......	207.25	8.63	129 96	2 51	
	Drawing in,.....	113 25	4.72	59 40	1 90	

GEORGE F. BECK,
for E. PARKER, Agent.

Jackson Co., New Hampshire, Feb. 29, 1846.

MR. R. FISHER:

SIR—In answer to your queries on the subject of labour in the following years, we state as follows:

The Price of Wages per day, for Masons and Labourers, in the month of May, in the following years:

1832,..	Masons,	13	shillings,..	Labourers,	7	shillings,	
1835,..	"	14	" ..	"	8	"	
1836,..	"	17	" ..	"	10	"	after the great fire in the city of New York.
1837,..	"	15	" ..	"	8	"	
1838,..	"	13	" ..	"	7	"	
1839,..	"	13	" ..	"	8	"	great expansion of the currency.
1840,..	"	12	" ..	"	6	"	
1841,..	"	12	" ..	"	7	"	
1842,..	"	11	" ..	"	7	"	
1843,..	"	12	" ..	"	7	"	
1844,..	"	13	" ..	"	8	"	
1845,..	"	14	" ..	"	8	"	

In addition to the rise in the wages, from 1842 to 1845, there have been employed from 50 to 75 per cent. more men than there were from 1838 to 1842.

JOSEPH TUCKER,
WM. TUCKER,
JAMES HARRIOT,
AMOS WOODRUFF,
JAMES WEBB,
SAMUEL OLLIVER,
Mechanics of the city of New York.

THE PUBLIC DEBT OF GREAT BRITAIN,

AND BRITISH CAPITAL.

So MUCH is said about the British public debt, and British capital, that we think it will be interesting to our readers to see an account of both, taken from the official records, dated in 1842.

We are induced to publish these accounts, because, in the course of our investigations of the relative state of the two countries, England and America, it is necessary to advert to the fact of the enormous capital wielded by Great Britain, which, perhaps, as much as any thing else, gives her such a decided advantage over *this*, and most other countries, in working up raw materials into every species of manufacture.

We are aware that this subject of the productive capital of a country is a very intricate one, upon which very intelligent men have greatly differed. Bishop Berkley, for instance, plainly intimates that he considered "the public funds as a mine of gold." Mons. Melon, the author of an "Essai Politique sur le Commerce," published in 1735, though he does not go so far as Bishop Berkley, nevertheless contends (and his opinion has had many supporters) that the debts of a nation are "debts of the right hand to the left, and that consequently they have no tendency either to increase or diminish national wealth; and a Mr. Pinto, a Jew merchant, resident in Holland, author of the ingenious work "De la Circulation et du Credit," undertook to demonstrate that public debts, far from being a burden, were so much added to the national wealth—and not a few persons of eminence in England have expressed their belief in this paradox. But this theory is now exploded. Still, even McCulloch says, in his treatise on taxation, published in 1845:

"It is further to be borne in mind, that as the taxes required to defray the interest of loans are seldom very oppressive, they not unfrequently exert a beneficial influence over industry, and through the stimulus they give to invention and economy, usually replace, and sometimes *more* than replace, the interest. Neither is it to be doubted that there are several considerable direct advantages connected with the existence of a public debt. The readiness with which portions of it may be transferred from one individual to another; the facilities which it consequently affords for investing the smallest, as well as the largest savings, have certainly had a very beneficial influence; and it is not easy, indeed, to see how some of our most important businesses, as those of banking and insurance, could be advantageously carried on, and the public debt not exist. Still, however, if we consider it apart from the urgent circumstances which make it be contracted, the disadvantages connected with the accumulation of a large public debt appear very much to outweigh its advantages."

Again, McCulloch says: "A reduced rate of profits and inadequate wages seem to be necessary consequences of a high rate of taxation. The amount of the latter forms, of course, an equivalent deduction from the produce of industry; and the greater that deduction the less necessarily remains to be divided among the parties employed in production."

We have made these remarks and quotations, with no view to the same object that caused the inquiry by those who made it, namely: whether or no a public debt was onerous to the nation creating it. Doubtless it is so, particularly when it becomes so immense as the present public debt of Great Britain. The inquiry *we* propose to make is, how far the public debt of England tends to increase the capital of England, and enables her to manufacture cheaper than other countries? and we think the free trade author, McCulloch, has, in the quotations we have made in two points of his argument, greatly aided us in the views it is our purpose to put forth for the consideration of the reader.

In the first place, he admits, that "taxes required to defray the interest of loans not unfrequently exert a beneficial influence on industry, through the stimulus they give to invention, and usually replace, and *sometimes more than replace*, the interest."

We make the passing remark here, that we think, in this sentence, Mr. McCulloch gives up the whole doctrine of free trade—for if positive taxation repays itself by the stimulus it gives to industry, why will not high duties do the same? We think it would puzzle even Mr. McCulloch to show that taxation is any thing like as useful a stimulus to industry as protective duties—for the latter secure a valuable home market for labour, capital, and skill, which taxation to pay the interest on a public debt does not necessarily do, since it does not give that direction to the stimulus which is given by protective duties.

But our business at this time is with the other quotation we have made, namely: that "a reduced rate of profit and inadequate wages seem to be necessary consequences of a high rate of taxation." This would appear to be a self-evident proposition, for whatever other elements enter into the wages of labour, one is beyond all doubt or cavil; and that is, that the master pays no wages for that which does not repay him, either in profit or pleasure. Now the employer of an agricultural labourer derives neither pleasure nor profit from that portion of the labourer's toil which pays tithes. In the same way, in calculating the amount of wages he will pay to the labourer, either by the day, or by the year, or by the job, he calculates what the labour will produce to him, and certainly pays nothing for that portion of it which he has immediately to pay out to the tax gatherer—so that all the taxes and tithes are an immediate tax upon labour. Now, without, as we have said, mooting the point of the advantages or disadvantages to Great Britain, in the final result of all her policy, of this national debt, and her tithes, excise duties, poor rates, &c., &c., we think it is clear that it is her systems of burthening her industry with such heavy taxes that produce the extreme depression of prices, which enables her to manufacture so much cheaper; and it follows, beyond all dispute, that those countries who admit the proceeds of this labour to compete with their own, subject their own people to precisely the same evil, and introduce the effects of British over taxation with the fabrics proceeding from British labour.

But we have still another object, in thus showing the enormous amount of British capital and the public debt, and that is, to show that both contribute to keep down the rate of interest—so as to give Great Britain an immense advantage over all other countries, where the rate of interest is much higher—as is the case in this country. For whatever may be the effect to lessen the amount of the wealth annually created in England in consequence of her debt—still, as regards other countries, it does give her, as Mr. McCulloch admits, "a readiness with which portions of it may always be transferred from one individual to another" which greatly aids in their business transactions of every nature and kind whatsoever. Indeed, the question may be well asked, why it is not an addition to the *active* capital of the country? If the whole real and personal property of the realm be even mortgaged for its redemption—why is not any amount of the public debt as much capital, as any private mortgage. We confess we think, a fundholder, so long as the government lasts as it is at present, with the power to enforce the payment of the interest, may surely consider his stock, as much capital as any other paper currency of any bank or other chartered institution, for, as Mr. McCulloch justly says, "such institutions are founded upon the public debt."

In estimating, therefore, the amount of English capital, we cannot exactly see why the public debt is not a portion of it, for all purposes for which capital is needed, in agriculture, commerce, or manufactures. In estimating the whole value of British capital, it should, of course, be deducted from such portions of the dead capital as are clear of all incumbrances, because it is a debt fairly chargeable against something, if it is ever to be paid; and though it would be extremely difficult, from the great intricacy of the funding system, and the manner in which it is intertwined with every portion of the great concerns of the nation, to make an exact estimate of British capital; still we think, allowing some fifty, or even one hundred millions, if necessary, for what may be owned of the debt by foreigners, and may be in use for the capital of safety fund, and other banks, &c., and joint stock companies of various kinds, the balance of the public debt, say upwards of six hundred millions of pounds sterling, may fairly be considered as British capital. Not capital in addition to all other value in the empire, but *active capital* for every purpose for which it may be needed to stimulate British industry. We wish to make ourselves fully understood, and therefore say, in addition, that if it were possible ever to pay the national debt, it is a charge against the country, and its industry of every kind; but as seven-eighths of it is owned in England, that seven-eighths, while it exists, operates as capital, and were it annihilated to-morrow, though it might not eventually greatly impoverish England, it would, for the moment, put a stop to every industrial pursuit unconnected with the mere cultivation of the soil, which dire necessity would require. If the views we have here taken be sound—we have established three important points, viz: If taxes, as admitted by McCulloch, stimulate industry so as to more than return the amount of taxation—then protective duties do so, with many advantages in favour of the latter. If taxation press entirely upon labour, and reduce its value, then we have defined the reason why we should exclude British labour, so far as to prevent the same effect upon our own. And if the funded debt of Great Britain operate, to all intents and purposes, as a medium to stimulate industry, then we have the secret of the low rate of interest in England, and of the enormous capital she wields, not only at home, but throughout the world.

With these remarks, we submit to the inspection of our readers the following statistical tables, showing British estimates of her debt, capital, and revenue, for 1842.

An Account of the Number of Persons interested in the National Debt, arranged in various Classes according to the amount of Dividends to which they are entitled, made up to October 10, 1839:

Not exceeding	£5	86,560
"	10	45,147
"	50	98,946
"	100	26,205
"	200	14,816
"	300	4,523
"	500	2,759
"	1,000	1,337
"	2,000	384
Exceeding	2,000	192
Total number of Persons in 1839,		280,869

Transferred to the Commissioners for the Reduction of the National Debt:

Donations and Bequests,	£270,161	13	7
Stock unclaimed 10 years and upwards,	319,164	13	6
Unclaimed Dividends,	985,000	0	0
	£1,574,326	7	1

Origin and History of the National Debt.

No.	NAME OF THE WAR.	OUR ENEMIES.	OUR ALLIES.	War commenced, A. D.	EVENTS.	Number of Years the war lasted.	Ended by the Peace of	War ended, A. D.	Millions raised by Taxes.	Millions raised by Loans.
1	The War of the Revolution.	The French.	The Dutch, Austrians, Prussians, Spaniards, and People of Savoy.	1688	Battles of Dieppe, of the Boyne, of La Hogue, of Steinkirk, and Nerwinde. Capitation tax and forced levies in France. National Debt began in England.	9	Ryswick.	1697	16	20
2	The War of the Spanish Succession.	French, Spaniards.	Dutch, Austrians, People of Savoy, and Portuguese.	1702	Battles of Blenheim, Ramilies, Oudenarde, and Malplaquet. England gains Gibraltar, Minorca, Nova Scotia, and Newfoundland.	11	Utrecht	1713	30	32½
3	The Spanish War, 1739, and the War of the Austrian Succession, 1841.	Spaniards, French.	Austrians, Dutch, Russians, Sardinians, and Hungarians.	1739	Battles of Dettingen, Fontenoy, Culloden, and Finisterre. Anson's Voyage. Rebellion in 1745.	9	Aix-La-Chapelle.	1748	25	29
4	The Seven Years' War.	French, Spaniards, Austrians, Russians.	Prussians.	1756	French expelled from Canada. Battles of Minden and Abraham. England gains Bengal, Canada, Cape Breton, Tobago, &c.	7	Paris.	1763	52	60
5	American War.	Americans, French, Spaniards, Dutch.	—	1775	Rodney's naval victories. Gibraltar besieged. Battle of Bunker's hill, Brandywine, and Germantown. England loses 13 N. American provinces, Minorca, Tobago, and the Floridas.	8	Versailles.	1783	38	104
6	The War of the French Revolution.	French, Spaniards from 1796.	Spaniards till 1795, Dutch, Prussians, Austrians, Portuguese.	1793	France loses all power in India. Battles of Lodi, Arcola, Marengo, and Alexandria. Howe, Bridport, Jervis, Duncan, and Nelson's naval victories. Bank restriction, 1797. England gains Malta, Trinidad, and Coromandel.	9	Amiens.	1802	263½	200½
7	The War against Napoleon Bonaparte	French, Spaniards till 1808, Americans from 1812.	Austrians, Prussians, Russians, Spaniards from 1808, Portuguese.	1803	Battles of Trafalgar, Austerlitz, Saalfeld, Jena, Eylau, Vimiera, Corunna, Wagram, Talavera, Barossa, Albuera Salamanca, Smolensko, Borodino, Leipsic, Waterloo. England gains Ceylon, the Cape, Berbice, Demerara, &c.	12	Paris.	1815	770½	388½
						65			1,189	834½
					Reduced at different periods since the close of the War,...............					66½
					Present amount,..					768

An Account of the State of the Public Funded Debt of Great Britain and Ireland, and the Charge thereupon, on the 5th of January, 1842:

DEBT.

GREAT BRITAIN.	CAPITALS. £. s. d.	CAPITALS Transferred to and Standing in the Names of the Commissioners. £. s. d.	CAPITALS UNREDEEMED. £. s. d.
Debt due to the South Sea Company, at 3 per cent.,..	3,662,784 8 6½	....	6,662,784 8 6½
Old South Sea Annuities, at 3 per cent.,............	3,497,870 2 7	....	3,497,870 2 7
New South Sea Annuities, at 3 per cent.,............	2,460,830 2 10	....	2,460,830 2 10
South Sea Annuities, 1751, at 3 per cent.,..........	523,100 0 0	....	523,100 0 0
Debt due to the Bank of England, at 3 per cent.,...	11,015,100 0 0	....	11,015,100 0 0
Bank Annuities created in 1726, at 3 per cent ,......	826,636 0 0	1,295 18 3	825,340 1 9
Consolidated Annuities, at 3 per cent.,..............	369,770,368 17 10¼	668,792 4 7	369,101,576 13 3¼
Reduced Annuities, at 3 per cent.,...................	126,652,035 5 8	967,281 5 6	125,684,754 0 2
Total at 3 per cent.,......	518,408,724 17 5¼	1,637,369 8 4	516,771,355 9 1¼
Annuities at 3½ per cent., anno, 1818,...............	9,897,035 17 9	1,516 6 11	9,895,519 10 10
Reduced 3½ per cent Annuities,......................	66,433,816 13 5	34,414 0 1	66,399,402 13 4
New 3½ per cent. Annuities,.	145,051,040 13 7	115,855 4 11	144,935,185 8 8
New 5 per cent. Annuities,..	430,076 3 2	....	430.076 3 2
Total, Great Britain,.....	740,220,694 5 4¼	1,789,155 0 3	738,431,539 5 1¼
IN IRELAND.			
Irish Consolidated Annuities, at 3 per cent.,........	3,284,013 6 5	....	3,284,013 6 5
Irish Reduced Annuities, at 3 per cent.,.............	115,016 12 5	....	115,016 12 5
£3½ per cent. Debentures and Stock,.................	14,606,121 6 2	....	14,606,121 6 2
Reduced 3½ per cent. Annuities,......................	912.958 14 3	....	912,958 14 3
New 3½ per cent. Annuities,.	12,546,666 19 2	....	12,546,666 19 2
Debt due to the Bank of Ireland, at 3½ per cent., ...	2,630,769 4 8	....	2,630,769 4 8
New 5 per cent. Annuities,..	3,673 11 2	....	3,673 11 2
Total, Ireland,..........	34,099,219 4 3	....	34,099,219 4 3
Total, United Kingdom,..	774,319,913 19 7¼	1,789,155 0 3	772,530,758 19 4¼

CHARGE.

			In Great Britain. £. s. d.	In Ireland. £. s. d.	Total Annual Charge.
Due to the Public Creditor.	Annual interest on Unredeemed Capital,....................		23,267,698 4 9	1,176,532 12 9½	
	Long Annuities, expire, 1860,.....		1,293,947 4 6	489 18 10	
	Annuities, per 4 Geo. 4, c. 22, expire 1867,......................		585,740 0 0		
	Annuities for a limited term of years, per 59 Geo. 3, c. 34, 10 Geo. 4, c. 24, and 3 Will. 4, c. 14, which expire at various periods, viz :				
	Granted up to 5 Jan., 1841.,	£1,607,829 18 6			
	Deduct, Expired and Unclaimed up to do., including £106,100, Waterloo Annuities, 59 Geo. 3, c. 54,	292,901 19 3	1,315,090 12 9		
Payable at the National Debt Office.	Life Annuities, per 48 Geo. 3, c. 142, 10 Geo. 4, c. 24, and 3 Will. 4, c. 14, viz :				
	Granted up to 5 Jan., 1841,	1,681,709 3 6			
	Deduct, Expired and Unclaimed, up to do.	823,852 8 0	840,777 10 6		
	Tontine and other Life Annuities, per various Acts,...... English,		19,845 19 3		
	Irish, ..		34,230 8 7	6,823 7 3	
Management,.......................			27,357,330 0 4	1,183,845 18 10¼	
			160,282 12 9½		
TOTAL ANNUAL CHARGE, exclusive of £48,364 11 1½, the Annual Charge on Capitals and Long Annuities standing in the Names of the Commissioners on account of Stock Unclaimed 10 years or upwards, and of Unclaimed Dividends, and also on account of Donations and Bequests,			27,517,612 13 1¾	1,183,845 18 10¼	28,701,458 12 0

ORDINARY REVENUE.

Statement of the Revenue and Expenditure of the United Kingdom for the Year ending 5th January, 1842:[*]

Balances and Bills outstanding on 5th January, 1841,		£1,548,505 12 4¼
Customs Duties on		
Sugar,	£5,114,389[*]	
Tea,	3,973,667	
Tobacco,	3,550,824	
Wines,	1,720,732	
Timber,	1,500,310	
Brandy,	1,329,081	
Rum,	1,063,086	
Coffee,	887,721	
Grain, Corn, and Flour,	568,340	
Cotton Wool,	528,507	
Provisions—Butter,	262,613	
Cheese,	134,621	
Eggs,	33,488	
Fruit—Currants,	221,124	
Raisins,	189,702	
Silks—Manufactured,	243,138	
Unmanufactured,	14,598	
Molasses,	193,985	
Seeds,	137,568	
Tallow,	205,838	
Sheep's and lambs' wool,	129,852	
Duties outwards,	127,890	
All other articles,	1,585,000	
England,	19,405,651 9 6¾	
Scotland,	1,864,793 15 5	
Ireland,	2,244,929 7 1	
		23,515,374 12 0¾
Excise Duties on		
Spirits,	5,178,173	
Malt,	5,262,362	
Licences,	1,036,581	
Soap,	814,227	
Glass,	660,558	
Paper,	583,643	
Bricks,	443,018	
Hops,	69,054	
Auctions,	301,788	
Post horses,	199,863	
Vinegar,	26,105	
Sugar,	2,700	
Law costs, Fines, forfeitures, &c.,	11,356	
England,	11,082,955 4 3	
Scotland,	2,245,230 17 8¾	
Ireland,	1,274,661 3 9½	
		14,602,847 5 9¼
Carried over,		£39,666,727 10 2¼

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[*] Fractions of a £. omitted in this column.

ORDINARY REVENUE.

	£.	s.	d.	£.	s.	d.
Brought forward,				£39,666,727	10	2¼
Stamp Duties:						
Deeds,	£1,665,296*					
Legacies,	1,205,452					
Fire insurance,	964,144					
Probates,	927,019					
Bills of exchange,	624,769					
Bankers' composition,	106,725					
Bankers' notes,	17,816					
Receipt stamps,	174,745					
Marine insurance,	284,494					
Licenses and certificates,	222,153					
Newspapers,	245,865					
Stage carriages,	460,733					
Hackney do.	50,846					
Advertisements,	131,603					
Miscellaneous,						
England,	6,279,530	2	8¼			
Scotland,	549,385	2	0			
Ireland,	447,455	15	3	7,276,360	19	11¼
Lands Tax on Lands and Tenements,	1,214,430					
Assessed Taxes on						
Windows,	1,664,052					
Servants,	215,843					
Carriages,	464,591					
Horses for riding, &c.,	342,377					
Other horses and mules,	72,298					
Dogs,	172,190					
Horse dealers,	14,151					
Hair powder,	5,421					
Armorial bearings,	70,058					
Game duties,	136,324					
Composition duty,	31,533					
Penalties in law proceedings and costs received,	649					
Miscellaneous receipts,	72					
Additional 10 per cent.,	311,357					
England,	£4,457,060	0	2½			
Scotland,	258,293	7	10¼	4,715,353	8	0¾
Post Office:						
England,	£1,260,788	15	8¾			
Scotland,	108,345	6	5			
Ireland,	126,406	6	11	1,495,540	9	3¾
One Shilling in the Pound, and Sixpence in the Pound on Pensions and Salaries, and Four Shillings in the Pound on Pensions,	5,752	10	8			
Crown Lands,	438,297	17	5			
Small branches of the Hereditary Revenue,	5,562	14	11			
Surplus Fees of Regulated Public Offices,	93,504	18	4	543,118	1	4
				53,697,100	8	7½
Deduct Balances and Bills outstanding on 5th January, 1842,				1,499,989	12	8
Total Ordinary Revenue,				£52,197,110	15	11½

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* Fractions of a £. omitted in this column.

SUMMARY OF BRITISH CAPITAL.

Summary of the Investment of British Capital in Foreign Loans and Public Companies, so far as the same is known on the London Market.

FOREIGN SECURITIES.		
In Foreign Loans and American Bonds, including arrears of interest,		£121,501,410
THE BANKING INTEREST.		
The Bank of England,	£10,914,750	
The Bank of Ireland,	2,630,769	
JOINT STOCK BANKS.		
England and Wales, about	15,000,000	
London (exclusive of two Irish Banks,)	6,433,500	
Ireland,	1,850,850	
Scotland,	9,619,825	
		46,449,694
The East India Company,		6,000,000
The South Sea Company,		3 662,734
Turnpike Trusts,		8,774,927
Railroad Companies,		57,447,963
Foreign Mining Companies,		6,464,833
British Ditto,		4,500,000
Assurance Companies, including the accumulations of Mutual Assurance Companies,		26,000,000
Canal Companies, (being the main lines,)	£14,362,445	
Branches and Feeders,	3,500,000	
		17,862,445
Dock Companies,		12,077,237
Gas Light and Coke Companies,		4,396,870
Water Companies,		2,536,122
Bridge Companies,		2,183,874
Literary Institutions,		1,003,125
Shipping Companies,		
Land Ditto,		
Asphalte Ditto,		
Cemetery Ditto, about		25,000,000
Loan Ditto,		
Salt Ditto,		
Miscellaneous Companies,		
Total,		£345,731,174

REVENUE.

The Revenue Accounts, made up to the 5th of January, 1843, *give the following amounts of Increase and Decrease as compared with the Revenue of* 1842, *for which see page* 1147 :

Decrease :	Customs,		£824,275
	Excise,		1,173,614
	Stamps,		218,346
	Taxes,		209,319
	Crown Lands,		29,000
			2,454,554
Increase :	Property Tax,	£571,056	
	Post Office,	150,000	
	Miscellaneous,	481,673	1,202,729
	Decrease on the Ordinary Revenue,		1,251,825
Increase :	Imprest and other Monies,	£157,283	
	Repayments of Advances,	171,912	329,195
	Decrease on the year,		£922,630

HOW MR. WALKER SYMPATHIZES

WITH THE MECHANIC.

The following facts and statistics have been forwarded to us from an authentic source. We commend them to the parties interested, that they may see what will be their fate under the revenue tariff of Mr. Walker.

Our clothiers and tailors may look out, for should the so-called revenue standard be adopted, we shall have a full supply of ready-made clothing imported, before it has been long in operation.

What will Pennsylvania, Maryland, and Virginia, have to say about the coal trade. Thirty per cent. on coal will be a fine bounty to Nova Scotia and Newcastle; and ruin, utter ruin, to our own coal mines. But, it is much easier to say what portion of our industry Mr. Walker will doom to destruction, than what he will not destroy.

We give the following statistics, because it is important to call the attention of those particularly interested to the jeopardy in which they are placed, that they may take such measures as to them may seem meet and proper, to avert their doom.

For ourselves, it really makes us sick at heart, when we think of the ruin that is impending!!!

If the destruction of a temple, dedicated to a heathen goddess, rendered the name of, "Erostratus" infamously immortal, what should be the fate of those who would paralyze the honest arm of industry, and bring desolation and wo into the abodes of the nation's greatest strength and pride, our intelligent mechanics? Our readers may rely on the correctness of the following statistics and remarks:

READY-MADE CLOTHING.

In this trade there are a great number of hands employed, and it is rapidly increasing. Since 1842, the price of clothing has decreased from 10 to 15 per cent., and the wages of the hands has increased about 10 per cent.

The owner of a large establishment in Boston, states that in 1842 he employed about 300 persons; in 1845 he has upwards of 550, all of whom receive steady employment.

He admits that a reduction of the import duty from 50 to 30 per cent., as contemplated by Mr. Walker, would enable him to import, from Germany and France, all the better description of clothing he requires as, also, the findings. In this statement he is sustained by another house.

The country would lose the money and amount of the purchases; the manufacturer, the cloth, &c.; and the tailor, the making up. So much for revenue duties.

WORSTED, FRINGE, TASSELS, &c.,

Were, in 1842, in their infancy. Since that period sales doubled; price to consumers has decreased 25 per cent.; wages to hands increased from 15 to 20 per cent.

Hands employed by a house in Boston, in	1842	45
do. do. do.	1845	150

Nothing less than 40 per cent. will protect it at present; and there should be a home valuation, as it is said frauds are committed in passing goods.

CORDAGE.

Mr. Walker, it is said, proposes a great reduction in the duty on this article—viz: from 4½ and 5 cts. the lb., to 20 per cent. ad valorem.

Prices of Manilla and Tarred Cordage, per pound.

	Manilla.	Russian.	American.
1841,	$110	$12	
1842,	10	11	
1843, (beginning of American manufacture which brought down price of others,)	9	10	$7½
1844,	9	9½	7½
1845,	9	9½	7

Prices paid for Hemp, per ton.

	Manilla.	Russian.	American.
1841,	$162	$240	
1842, (introduction of American hemp, reduced price of others,)	146	210	$115
1843,	140	200	75 to $100
1844,	134	175	70 to 115
1845,	134	180	80 to 105

Increase of consumption of American Hemp in one factory, in Boston, who first introduced it.

1842,	30,028 lbs.
1843,	196,669 "
1844,	346,051 "
1845,	502,515 "

In Massachusetts, alone, there are 49 cordage establishments, employing 647 hands. The value of the manufactured article is $906,321.

THE SILK TRADE,

Is another branch of industry that must fall beneath Mr. Walker's pruning knife.

It is now in its infancy. Great care has been taken with it, and the result, so far, has been very successful, one article made (sewings) being considered equal to that imported.

Mr. Walker proposes to raise the duty on the raw material from 12½ to 20 per cent., and at the same time reduce the duty on the imported sewings from $2 per pound to 20 per cent., or less than $1. The consequence will be, should his bill pass, this trade falls.

Value of silk manufactured in Massachusetts last year, $150,477.

Number of hands employed, 156.

On this subject I expect some further information.

STRAW BONNETS AND BRAID.

Even with the present duty of 35 per cent., the manufacturers of straw bonnets and braid find it difficult to get along; in fact, the trade is in its infancy, and ought to have, for some time, increased protection, in place of having none, as Mr. Walker's 20 per cent. will completely destroy it. As it is, the best workwomen can only earn 50 cents per day, and the average may be calculated at 25. The braid is generally made by children, varying in age from 6 to 12 years.

In Massachusetts, alone, there are employed 13,311 hands in making straw bonnets, braid, and palm leaf hats, and the value of the manufactured articles is as follows:

Straw bonnets and braid,..................................	$1,160,250
Palm leaf hats,..	489,237
Total,..	$1,659,496

The introduction of the domestic manufacture, reduced the price of straw bonnets 50 per cent., and with proper protection a very beautiful article could be produced.

On manufactured palm leaf, which at present comes in duty free, Mr. Walker proposes to have a duty of 10 per cent.

To show to what extent the straw and palm leaf business is carried on, it is a fact, there are no less than three mills exclusively employed in making thread for their use.

HOSIERY TRADE.

This is becoming an important branch of industry, and shows the value of a protective duty, for infant manufactures, in a very strong light. Before the tariff of 1842, the manufacture of hosiery was commenced at Portsmouth, N. H., and failed; since 1842, it has been revived, and is now in rapid progress, as will appear from the following statement, received from one of the largest houses in Boston:

Sales by said house, of domestic hosiery,	in	1842,	....	$9,000
do,	do,	do,	1845, ...	50,000

And they say they could even have increased their sales, had there been hands enough employed; and, also, that in several articles they have been compelled to abandon their importations, the articles now manufactured being so good, the quality of wool superiour to English.

The price of the domestic hosiery is less than in 1842, and the wages received by the operative is fully 20 per cent. more than at that period.

The value of domestic hosiery made last year, in Massachusetts, is $94,892. Hands employed, 238.

This account is corroborated by another large house in the trade, their sales being, in 1842, about $10,000, in 1845, $35,000.

In Germantown, near Philadelphia, there are some large hosiery establishments.

COAL IMPORTED INTO BOSTON.

YEARS.	FOREIGN.		NATIVE.	
	Tons of English Coal.	Tons of Sydney and Pictou.	Anthracite.	Virginia.
1841,......................	14,243	37,546	107,095	4,752
1842,......................	12,390	29,874	86,582	4,750
1843,......................	6,862	25,230	111,655	5,386
1844,......................	9,097	25,417	134,120	6,102
1845,......................	15,193	42,035	165,422	10,160*

* In this is included a few cargoes of Cumberland coal, from Maryland, being its first introduction into the Boston market.

Within the past year the consumption of English coal has increased 67 per cent.
Nova Scotia, do. do. do. 65 per ct.
Anthracite from Pennsylvania, do. do. 23⅓ per ct.
Virginia, do. do. do. 66½ per ct.

The Virginia coal is generally used by glasshouses.

If, therefore, with the present high duty of $1 75 per ton, the consumption of foreign coal has increased so much, it is evident that when the duty is reduced to 30 per cent., or about 75 cents, it will give complete possession of the market to the English, as the price of the Pictou and Sydney coal will then be much less than the Pennsylvania—per example:

Pictou and Sydney coal at the pit, is about $3 per chaldron, or per ton,.....	$2 40
30 per cent. duty,..	72
Freight, ...	1 80
Total,..	$4 92

Anthracite coal, per ton, delivered in Boston, varies from 5¼ to 5¾ per ton.

It must, also, be borne in mind, that Sydney or Pictou is generally preferred by both housekeepers and manufacturers. I have heard twenty persons express their opinion, that in the event of a change, they would burn the foreign.

A merchant, who deals largely in Pictou and Sydney coal, as, also, English, said, if Mr. Walker's bill passed, the foreign coal would be certain to throw the other out of the market, in all the seaboard cities and towns.

In June last (the time for the manufacturers laying in stock) the cargo price of Sydney and Pictou coal was $6 per ton. Anthracite at the same time varied between $5 25 and $5 50 per ton. English coal was then $7 to $7 25 per ton.

It is, therefore, clear that, without the present duty, the coal trade cannot continue its operations, and how much does it influence the coasting trade?

The agent of the Cumberland Coal Company has received an order from Cunard's line of steamers for a large quantity of Cumberland coal, with a promise of taking their entire supply, they considering it, after trial, as superiour to any they can get here.

GREAT NATIONAL FAIR AT WASHINGTON,

FOR THE EXHIBITION OF AMERICAN MANUFACTURES.

We are much pleased to see that the Fair, which it is proposed to hold at the seat of the General Government, is attracting so much attention throughout the country, and that, therefore, it is likely to be what it should be, a grand exhibition of the inventive genius and manufacturing skill of the American people.

It has been the invariable policy of the British Government, first, while we were her colonies, to put down all attempts to establish manufactures on this side of the Atlantic, by positive laws restricting them—and since our separation, by starting new systems of political economy, and flooding the world with publications, to prove that the policy by which England has become great and powerful, is all an errour.

Not succeeding in producing the effect by her writings, she is now about to attempt its accomplishment by legislation. Driven to the necessity of every measure to meet the competition of her rivals in manufactures, among whom the United States is one of the most formidable, she is forced to take off all duties from raw materials, and proposes to repeal her corn laws to furnish her famishing population with cheap bread—and this she calls "free trade," while all her colonial restrictions, and her navigation laws in favour of British shipping, remain in full force. Surely we shall not fall into a trap, which has for its object to re-colonize us!

Let our manufacturers and artisans, therefore, flock to the seat of government with their various goods, wares, and merchandises, to put to the blush, and to cry shame upon those who would "sell their rights for a mess of pottage."

But we must not occupy further space with our own remarks, but must give place to the following noble and patriotic address, from that glorious institution which is the pride of our city, the American Institute. It is enough to immortalize the city of New York, the great seat of the widely extended commerce of the Union, that such an institution is planted here, and that a large majority of our citizens, sympathize with it in its exalted views of the character and destiny of our country. We cannot too highly praise such an institution, nor too warmly commend the following address, which must find a response in every American heart.

CIRCULAR OF THE AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF THE CITY OF NEW YORK.

Notice has been received by this Institute that a Great National Fair will be held at Washington, D. C., commencing the 20th of May next, and continuing several weeks. The Trustees, on behalf of the Institute, regard such an exhibition, if ably conducted, at the seat of government, in view of our representatives and distinguished statesmen from the South and West, as well as the North and East, at this time, of vast consequence to the future prospects of this country. It will bring directly to the view of our statesmen matter of fact evidence of the rapid march and high perfection of manufactures and the arts under the system of Protection which has been adopted! It will show that in the short period of thirty years American ingenuity and skill have accomplished what has required centuries in other countries, and if the same wise policy enjoined by Washington and his illustrious successors is steadily pursued, will ensure our future prosperity and independence.

The progress of improvement has been so rapid, that few, even in the manufacturing portions of the country, have an adequate idea of its present magnitude. The annual product, and the high perfection of those articles which the wisdom of legislation has shielded from foreign competition, would be incredible, were they not confirmed by careful comparison and indisputable statistics. From a long list of hundreds, we shall select only six, viz: manufactures of cotton, wool, leather, paper, cabinet wares, and iron, all which, from comparatively small beginnings, now yield more than one hundred and fifty millions of dollars per annum, and are increasing in a ratio that has no parallel in the history of industry.

This mighty increase, far outstripping our whole foreign trade, with the exception of the finer cotton goods only partially benefited by the minimum duty, and the supply of which foreign competition has thus far rendered insignificant—all these, for a series of years, have been protected by a duty averaging forty per cent. The secret of their success, and acknowledged perfection, is *protection* against the inundating supplies which foreign countries would otherwise have poured into our markets. CHEAP; cheap, indeed, in the outset, but dear in the end. We might, however, dispense with all speculation and argument, and rest our country's cause upon a single fact:

Every article which can be manufactured at home, and which has received a protective duty for seven consecutive years, has, by home competition, and consequent development of ingenuity alone, been reduced in price to the consumer below the foreign cost at the time of imposing the duty.

This fact, we believe, is without an exception since the formation of our government, while other articles, only partially protected, such as linen, fine cotton goods, &c., have remained, some nearly stationary in their prices for a long series of years; or if their prices have materially declined, it has not been at all proportioned to the decline on the protected classes of articles. The difference to our country, whether made at home or abroad, admits of no mistake. In one case the money expended in fabricating remains in our own country—in the other it is out of it.

The Trustees of the American Institute respectfully recommend to all the friends of industry to co-operate in carrying out this exhibition; particularly the numerous, intelligent, and highly respecable corresponding members selected for this honor, whose various positions and high standing among their fellow-citizens will enable them to exert an extensive and efficient influence.

The friends and patrons of this Institute, and the advocates of the noble object of its charter, are desired to lend their hearty co-operation. Also, exhibitors at the fairs of this Institute are desired to prepare for the occasion choice specimens of their numberless fabrications. Manufacturers, mechanics, and artisans of our country, you all have a deep interest in this exhibition! No department of the arts should be overlooked! but all should be represented!

It is in your power, by a full display, to make an exhibition that will rouse the pride and warm the patriotism of every American beholder, in and out of Congress. A momentous crisis is at hand; soon it will be determined whether our foreign competitors shall beguile us of our birthright, arrest our prosperity, and prostrate our independence, or not! The policy of the proposed tariff is to increase revenue by diminished duties—to present the strongest inducements to excess in importations—to break down the principal barriers against fraudulent entries, by repealing all specific and minimum duties, as if national wealth would be promoted by swelling the balance of trade against our own country! And more effectually to accomplish this, the value which regulates the duty, small as it is proposed to be on the imported article, will be determined by the owner himself. It will prove a law to transfer to foreigners your customers, who will be allured by the fatal syren sound of cheap! cheap! It is nothing to the purpose that you can produce as cheap as the foreigner. Modern competition is a war of capital. With vast money resources, the accumulations of ages, victory over our infant establishments must eventually be inevitable. Cost for a season will be no consideration. Like the steamboat competition, pursued at prices known not to pay, he who carries the longest purse is sure to triumph, and then he will raise the fare as his cupidity dictates. Combinations of foreign iron masters afford illustrations not less palpable, nor less instructive. We would say to all our fabricators of domestic articles, commence preparations at once, and in due season present yourselves at the great Fair at the seat of government, with the choicest specimens of your factories and workshops. Spare no expense! Success will repay you a thousand fold. There you will find foreign agents, and dealers in their merchandise, in swarms. You will at once recognise them. Assurance is stamped on their foreheads. Most eloquently,

> "They'll talk of public good, and mean their own."

Fresh patriots, from countries where unequal rights and privileged orders are unalterable, have most disinterestedly encountered a voyage of three thousand miles, to teach us how to take care of ourselves, and to instruct our rulers how to legislate for a nation of republicans.

On behalf, &c.

JAMES TALLMADGE, ADONIRAM CHANDLER,
WILLIAM INGLIS, SHEPHERD KNAPP,
T. B. WAKEMAN, HENRY MEIGS,
E. T. BACKHOUSE, Trustees.

Repository of the American Institute,
New York, April 18th, 1846.

N. B. The committee desire that the price, as well as the maker's name, be furnished with each article exhibited; and that the owners will be expected to allow sales at the marked prices, to be delivered at the close of the exhibition. There will be a sale at auction of such articles as the owners may wish. Motive power will be furnished for machinery.

We understand the foregoing able document is from the pen of Thaddeus B. Wakeman, Esq., the indefatigable supervisory agent of the American Institute.

CHASE'S CARD SPINNER.

WE have yet a few more words to say, on the subject of this great invention, destined, we think, to benefit the cotton planter, to an extent little, if any, less than Whitney's cotton gin.

In the first place, it must cause the consumption of a much greater quantity of cotton, by its use in preparing material for the winter wear of so large a portion of northern labourers, and all southern field hands, while it will render valuable an immense quantity of coarse wool, now wholly useless.

Some doubts appear to have been felt whether cloth made by this process could be fulled as well as cloth made wholly from wool. These doubts have been fully proven to be without the slighest foundation.

We have in our possession a piece of cloth made from cotton yarn, covered with wool by the card spinner, which has gone through the process of fulling, and it has borne the action of the fulling mill as satisfactorily as any woollen cloth we have ever seen, and is as substantial in every respect as cloth made wholly from wool can be; forming a solid and compact body, like a piece of the stoutest and strongest double-milled broadcloth.

We feel that we cannot too strongly recommend, to manufacturers and others, this new and important improvement, which we must believe will become one of general adoption, from the economy it will introduce into the coarse fabrics for clothing working men, to say nothing of its other advantages, in the saving of labour by the employment of persons incapacitated from more fatiguing processes, and also from its general utility.

MONTHLY LIST OF PATENTS.

A List of Patents issued from the 21st day of March to the 20th day of April, 1846, inclusive:

To Willis H. Johnson, of Springfield, Illinois, for improvement in the Rotary Pump. Patented 21st March, 1846.

To Richard Halloran, of New York city, for improvement in Ventilating Hats. Patented 21st March, 1846.

To Samuel Rust, of New York city, for improvement in Wick Tubes for Lamps Patented 21st March, 1846; ante dated 29th January, 1846.

To Jacob Cooke and John Strickler, of Strasburgh, Virginia, for improvement in Trusses. Patented 21st March, 1846.

To Simeon Whiton, of Hartford, Connecticut, for improvement in making Vegetable Beer. Patented 21st March, 1846.

To Benjamin W. Stratton, of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, for improvement in Trusses, (assigned to Benjamin C. Everett.) Patented 21st March, 1846.

To David B. W. Hard, of Bethlem, Connecticut, for improvement in Ladies' Trusses. Patented 21st March, 1846.

To James Ogden, and D. R. Hart of Troy, New York, for improvement in Carriage Windows. Patented 21st March, 1846.

To Hezekiel P. Nuckols, Glasgow, Kentucky, for improvement in Machinery for Cutting Screws, &c., for Bedsteads and Chairs. Patented 4th April, 1846.

To David Percival, of Middletown, Delaware, for improvement in Railroad Gates Patented 4th April, 1846.

To John R. Remington, of Lowndes co., Alabama, for improvement in attaching horses to one-wheeled Carriages. Patented 4th April, 1846.

To Thomas F. Wenman, of New York city, for improvement in the Filtering Cock. Patented 4th April, 1846.

To James Hibson, of New York city, for improvement in the Frames of Travelling Trunks. Patented 4th April, 1846.

To Patrick Fitzsimmons, of West Troy, New York, for improvement in Cleansing Fish Oil. Patented 4th April, 1846.

To Jonathan F. Ostrander, of New York city, for improvement in Filtering Cocks. Patented 4th April, 1846.

To Bennet Woodcroft, of Manchester, England, for improvement in Spiral Propellers. Patented 4th April, 1846.

To Alva B. Taylor, of New York city, for improvement in Checking the Momentum of Printing Presses. Patented 4th April, 1846.

To Washburn Race, of Seneca Falls, New York, for improvement in Registers for Stoves. Patented 4th April, 1846.

To Lorin M. Whitman, of Pike, New York, for improvement in Spring Tooth Horse Rakes. Patented 4th April, 1846.

To George J. Prantiss, of Tiverton, Rhode Island, for improvement in Machinery for Rinsing Calicoes, &c. Patented 4th April, 1846.

To Daniel Deshon, 2nd, of New London, Connecticut, for improvement in Paddle Wheels. Patented 4th April, 1846.

To Thomas Glasco, of Wilmington, Delaware, for improvement in Car Wheels. Patented 4th April, 1846.

To Joel L. Ransom, of Mill Port, New York, for improvement in Brick Presses. Patented 4th April, 1846.

To Charles King, of Scipio, New York, for improvement in Churn Dashers. Patented 4th April, 1846.

To Jacob H. Gemrig, of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, for improvement in Spring Lancets. Patented 11th April, 1846.

To Thomas Hartley, of Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania, for improvement in Brick Presses. Patented 11th April, 1846.

To Joshua H. Butterworth, of Dover, New Jersey, for improvement im Door Locks. Patented 11th April, 1846.

To Samuel F. B Morse, of New York city,

for improvement in Electro Magnetic Telegraph. Patented 11th April, 1846.

To Charles Wheeler, of Lockport, Massachusetts, for improvement in Light-House Lamps. Patented 11th April, 1846.

To William Kumbel, of New York city, for improvement in Stretching Leather Bands. Patented 11th April, 1846.

To Thomas J. Wells, of New York city, for improvement in Saw Mills. Patented 11th April, 1846.

To Samuel Lowery, of Philadelphia, Pennsylvania, for improvemement in making Bricks. Patented 18th April, 1846.

To George W. Macon, Louisburgh, North Carolina, for improvement in Machinery for Smoothing Tobaccò Leaves. Patented 18th April, 1846.

To Waldren Beach, of Baltimore, Maryland, for improvement in Corn Shellers. Patented 18th April, 1846.

To Joseph Colton, of Amherst, Massachusetts, for improvement in Pocket Books and Watch Safes. Patented 18th April, 1846.

To Nathan Ides, of Shelby, New York, for Improvement in Cultivators. Patented 18th April, 1846.

To Clinton Foster, of Laporte, Indiana, for improvement in Reaping Machines. Patented 18th April, 1846.

To C. S. Debow, of New York city, for improvement in Extension Bedsteads. Patented 18th April, 1846; ante dated 11th April, 1846.

To Royal E. House, of New York city, for improvement in Magnetic Printing Telegraphs. Patented 18th April, 1846.

To Samuel Witherow, of Gettysburgh, Pennsylvania, for improvement in Ploughs. Patented 18th April, 1846.

To Joshua M. C. Armsby, of Worcester, Massachusetts, for improvement in Regulating the Draft of Ploughs, (assigned to Ruggles, Nourse & Mason. Patented 18th April, 1846.

ADDITIONAL IMPROVEMENTS.

To Joel W. Andrews, of Norristown, Pennsylvania, for improvements iu the manner of Burning Bricks. Patented 4th April, 1846.

EXTENSIONS.

To Isaac K. Jennings, of Tuscaloosa, Alabama, for Apparatus in the Speedy Generation and Convenient, Prompt, and Agreeable Application of Heat to the Human System. Patented 21st of January, 1814. Renewed and extended by act of Congress, from March 3d, 1843. Issued 4th April, 1846.

STATISTICS.

Statistics of the Product and Condition of certain branches of Industry of Massachusetts, for the year ending April, 1845. *Published by authority of the State.*

ARTICLES.	Value.	Capital invested.	Hands employed.
Anchors, chain cables, &c.,	$538,966	$377,665	422
Asses and mules,	2,785		
Axes, hatchets, and other edge tools,	94,441	48,225	94
Beef, &c., slaughtered,	225,918		
Beeswax,	981		
Berries,	10,842		
Blacking,	10,422		35
Bleaching, or colouring,	2,166,000	200,500	211
Blocks and pumps,	127,249		204
Boats,	82,943		164
Boots and shoes,	14,799,140		45,877
Boxes of all kinds,	215,105		236
Brass articles,	331,890	167,600	146
Bricks,	612,832		1,407
Britannia ware,	102,650	49,350	98
Carried forward,			

ARTICLES.	Value.	Capital invested.	Hands employed.
Brought over,			
Brooms,	200,814		313
Broom seed and brush,	86,111		
Brushes,	153,900	68,875	220
Butter,	1,116,709		
Buttons, metal,	56,080	51,500	60
Butts, or hinges,	25,390	3,500	49
Calico,	4,779,817	1,401,500	2,053
Candles, oil and sperm,	3,613,796	2,451,917	306
Candles, soap and tallow,	836,156	405,872	343
Cannon,	82,000	120,000	48
Cards,	323,845	171,500	147
Carpeting,	834,322	488,000	1,034
Cars, railroad carriages, and other vehicles,	1,343,576	553,434	1,881
Cattle,	5,327,199		
Chairs and cabinet ware,	1,476,679	477,374	2,594
Cheese,	398,174		
Chemical preparations,	331,965	251,700	113
Chocolate,	81,672	47,500	27
Clocks,	54,975	10,359	40
Coal, mineral and iron ore,	21,669		78
Combs,	198,965	73,100	340
Cooperage,	269,935		487
Copper,	610,950	329,000	197
Cordage,	906,321	543,930	647
Cotton goods of all kinds,	12,193,449	17,739,000	20,710
Cutlery,	148,175	68,725	197
Dyeing,	98,700		114
Earthen and stone ware,	52,025	15,500	72
Engines, fire,	37,800		42
Engines and boilers, steam,	208,546	127,000	221
Fire arms,	260,819	789,848	357
Fishery, whale,	10,371,167	11,805,910	11,378
Fishery, mackerel and cod,	1,484,137	1,238,640	7,866
Flax,	665		
Flour,	174,805	44,550	30
Fringe and tassels,	54,300	11,700	106
Fruit,	744,540		
Gins, cotton,	45,444	75,000	48
Glass,	758,300	700,200	630
Glue,	387,575	283,675	93
Grain,	2,228,229		
Hats and caps,	734,942	213,793	1,003
Hay,	5,214,357		
Hollow and castings, other than pig iron,	1,280,141	713,270	1,267
Honey,	13,206		
Hops,	32,251		
Horses,	3,451,118		
Hosiery and yarn,	94,892	42,500	238
Instruments, mathematical, &c.,	54,050		68
Iron, pig,	148,761	155,000	235
Iron railing, fences and safes,	129,300	53,000	87
Jewellery,	305,623	126,225	293
Lasts,	80,145		84
Latches and door handles,	3,200	750	10
Lead pipe, &c.,	90,880	72,700	50
Lead, white, and paints,	356,200	253,500	106
Leather,	3,836,657	1,900,545	2,043
Lime,	43,629		80
Carried forward,			

ARTICLES.	Value.	Capital invested.	Hands employed.
Brought over,	....	....	....
Linen thread,	145,000	79,000	192
Linseed oil,	181,100	77,000	34
Locks,	60,070	23,600	75
Lumber and shingles,	921,106		2,506
Machinery,	2,022,646	1,103,850	2,421
Maple sugar,	41,443		
Marble,	220,004		312
Milk,	304,917		
Millet,	8,476		
Musical instruments,	548,625	293,100	427
Oil, Lard,	219,990	91,000	37
Oil, (see candles and fishery,)			
Paper,	1,750,272	1,144,537	1,369
Pens, steel,	15,000	5,000	12
Ploughs, and other agricultural tools,	121,691	58,575	158
Potatoes,	1,309,030		
Poultry and eggs,	25,891		
Powder,	165,500	120,000	49
Rolling, slitting, and nail mills—iron and nails manufactured in,	2,738,300	1,906,400	1,729
Saddless, harnesses, and trunks,	422,794	144,540	648
Salt,	79,960	399,285	584
Sashes, blinds, and doors,	180,181		215
Scythes,	113,935	69,590	171
Sheep,	558,284		
Shoe pegs,	18,206		
Seeds,	4,721		
Shovels, spades, forks, and hoes,	275,212	123,950	259
Silk, sewing,	150,477	38,000	156
Silk, raw,	952		
Snuff, tobacco, and cigars,	324,639		572
Soap, (see candles,)			
Starch,	119,950	37,500	39
Stone, building,	1,065,599		1,849
Straw bonnets, hats, and braid,	1,649,496		13,311
Sugar, refined,	940,000	410,000	106
Swine,	917,435		
Tacks and brads,	253,687	123,225	269
Teazles,	3,308		
Tin ware,	793,624	343,710	719
Tobacco raised,	16,686		
Tools, mechanics',	161,899		256
Upholstery,	354,261	124,700	275
Vegetables other than potatoes,	515,082		
Vessels,	1,172,147		1,017
Wood, fire, bark, and charcoal,	1,088,656		2,925
Wooden ware,	416,366		806
Wool,	365,136		
Woollen goods of all kinds,	8,877,478	5,604,002	7,372
Whips,	111,947		526
Worsted goods,	654,566	514,000	846
Stoves, bakeries, beer, books and stationary, balances, watches, lamps, pickles, paper-hangings, types, umbrellas, &c., &c., &c.,	4,758,384	1,587,760	3,232
	$124,735,264	$59,145,767	152,766

Statistical View of the Commerce of the United States, exhibiting the value of Exports to, and Imports from, each foreign country, during the year ending on the 30th of June, 1845:

COUNTRIES.	COMMERCE.			
	VALUE OF EXPORTS.			VALUE OF IMPORTS.
	Domestic Produce.	Foreign Produce.	Total.	
Russia,	$536,845	$190,492	$727,337	$1,492,262
Prussia,	502,007	65,114	567,121	31,062
Sweden and Norway,	250,567	22,761	273,328	627,938
Swedish West Indies,	88,886	1,453	90,339	12,119
Denmark,	124,666	20,501	145,167	22,429
Danish West Indies,	833,503	160,926	994,429	780,809
Hanse Towns,	4,106,927	838,093	4,945,020	2,912,537
Holland,	2,753,780	268,267	3,022,047	954,344
Dutch East Indies,	129,151	72,007	201,158	538,608
Dutch West Indies,	304,080	33,708	337,788	363,334
Dutch Guiana,	47,737	1,872	49,609	41,347
Belgium,	1,495,754	355,319	1,851,073	709,568
England,	41,518,934	4,767,244	46,286,178	44,627,859
Scotland,	2,611,874	54,936	2,666,810	708,187
Ireland,	103,471	....	103,471	104,857
Gibraltar,	426,107	163,564	589,671	92,118
Malta,	12,909	....	12,909	22,311
British East Indies,	297,331	134,067	431,398	1,276,534
Australia,	69,521	790	70,311	....
Cape of Good Hope,	33,743	....	33,743	26,439
Mauritius,	12,935	....	12,935	....
Honduras,	188,494	51,421	239,915	204,818
British Guiana,	416,867	1,881	418,748	7,957
British West Indies,	4,087,500	36,720	4,124,220	752,580
British North American Colonies,	4,844,966	1,209,260	6,054,226	2,020,065
France on the Atlantic,	11,350,432	2,942,253	14,292,685	20,181,250
France on the Mediterranean,	979,739	197,980	1,177,719	1,414,175
French West Indies,	542,455	21,648	564,103	415,032
Miquelon and French fisheries,	....	....	....	151
French Guiana,	57,052	444	57,496	59,306
French African ports,	5,508	....	5,508	....
Bourbon,	16,483	....	16,483	....
Spain on the Atlantic,	271,233	550	271,783	117,158
Spain on the Mediterranean,	55,700	28,808	84,508	954,628
Teneriffe and other Canaries,	5,895	....	5,895	55,032
Manilla and Philippine Isles.	119,263	35,315	154,578	633,059
Cuba,	6,203,808	360,946	6,564,754	6,804,414
Other Spanish West Indies,	688,149	20,775	708,924	2,026,353
Portugal,	124,350	5,419	129,709	296,908
Madeira,	59,312	1,784	61,096	168,674
Fayal and other Azores,	2,831	51	2,882	28,573
Cape de Verd islands,	50,599	2,834	53,433	7,579
Italy,	587,569	230,352	817,921	1,301,577
Sicily,	70,625	334,667	405,292	529,493
Sardinia,	162,827	32,970	195,797	19,859
Trieste and other Austrian ports,	1,433,103	368,775	1,801,878	321,550
Ionian Republic,	....	....	....	....
Turkey, Levant, and Egypt,	115,553	49,546	165,099	781,517
Hayti,	1,327,891	77,849	1,405,740	1,386,367
China,	2,079,341	196,654	2,275,995	7,285,914
Texas,	210,736	153,056	363,792	755,794
Mexico,	784,154	368,177	1,152,331	1,702,936
Central America,	41,548	26,101	67,649	65,969
New Grenada,	48,717	30,260	78,977	171,921
Venezuela,	535,545	189,585	725,130	1,268,275
Brazil,	2,413,567	424,383	2,837,950	6,084,599
Argentine Republic,	342,575	160,431	503,006	1,750,698
Cisplatine Republic,	140,986	16,150	157,136	20,573
Chili,	1,247,360	300,831	1,548,191	1,123,030
Peru,	33,424	....	33,424	336,112
South America generally,	75,329	9,910	85,239	....
Asia generally,	171,803	140,945	312,748	106,110
Africa generally,	525,563	79,543	605,106	572,196
Europe generally,	21,573	....	21,573	....
West Indies generally,	182,598	378	182,976	....
East Indies generally,	....	....	....	....
South Seas and Pacific Ocean,	416,025	57,064	473,089	136,565
Northwest Coast of America,	....	....	....	245
Sandwich Islands,	....	....	....	1,566
Uncertain places,	....	....	....	....
Total,	$99,299,776	$15,346,830	$114,646,606	$117,254,564

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, REGISTER'S OFFICE, November 22, 1845.

R. H. GILLET, Register.

***Statistical View of the Commerce of the United States, exhibiting the value of Tonnage of American and foreign vessels arriving from, and departing to, each foreign country, during the year ending on the 30th of June,* 1845:**

COUNTRIES.	NAVIGATION.			
	AMERICAN TONNAGE.		FOREIGN TONNAGE.	
	Entered the United States.	Cleared from the United States.	Entered the United States.	Cleared from the United States.
Russia,	12,603	9,109	1,763	1,906
Prussia,	412	947	90	9,521
Sweden and Norway,	2,125	349	13,439	6,248
Swedish West Indies,	351	2,135	....	....
Denmark,	....	1,040	1,157	2,116
Danish West Indies,	28,312	28,920	1,669	1,457
Hanse Towns,	13,009	16,016	50,825	59,007
Holland,	20,207	27,859	5,023	16,547
Dutch East Indies,	3,944	4,592	....	....
Dutch West Indies,	15,041	5,025	....	....
Dutch Guiana,	6,334	6,740	....	....
Belgium,	11,740	20,289	2,656	4,542
England,	377,198	374,846	196,778	198,921
Scotland,	11,955	14,732	21,847	20,810
Ireland,	907	1,412	24,136	987
Gibraltar,	4,071	11,691	1,905	1,097
Malta,	299	954	....	....
British East Indies,	9,500	10,314	1,163	....
Australia,	....	....	....	....
Cape of Good Hope,	413	498	....	....
Mauritius,	....	597	....	....
Honduras,	4,548	3,869	887	663
British Guiana,	4,672	12,325	4,203	2,801
British West Indies,	94,990	129,504	39,215	28,122
British North American Colonies,	684,359	677,935	463,748	512,004
France on the Atlantic,	115,740	121,815	9,565	10,036
France on the Mediterranean,	10,677	19,217	4,599	660
French West Indies,	24,709	33,150	4,564	1,294
Miquelon and French fisheries,	527	1,825	....	....
French Guiana,	1,310	1,547	....	....
French African ports,	....	....	220	364
Bourbon,	152	368	....	270
Spain on the Atlantic,	16,643	6,528	1,676	672
Spain on the Mediterranean,	10,127	3,909	8,074	1,056
Teneriffe and other Canaries,	703	467	1,024	387
Manilla and Philippine Isles,	4,025	3,230	....	....
Cuba,	193,183	171,892	9,238	16,193
Other Spanish West Indies,	51,150	28,575	629	622
Portugal,	10,266	5,803	1,100	990
Madeira,	813	2,081	599	491
Fayal and other Azores,	2,330	184	....	....
Cape de Verd Islands,	....	4,256	105	170
Italy,	5,186	5,984	3,164	914
Sicily,	22,711	445	6,022	3,628
Sardinia,	1,134	4,332	1,104	1,411
Trieste and other Austrian ports,	4,422	15,470	2,101	9,198
Ionian Republic,	250	....	....	....
Turkey, Levant, and Egypt,	5,915	1,897	2,724	....
Hayti,	34,377	27,919	575	534
China,	21,204	17,477	478	....
Texas,	15,740	18,930	1,987	2,221
Mexico,	16,157	16,952	3,023	4,540
Central America,	1,690	1,049	528	187
New Grenada,	3,569	1,562	....	....
Venezuela,	12,394	10,733	1,768	1,117
Brazil,	50,230	40,716	2,481	2,077
Argentine Republic,	11,653	10,667	1,889	843
Cisplatine Republic,	369	3,252	....	614
Chili,	4,872	8,273	....	....
Peru,	735	....	330	....
South America generally,	243	1,001	....	....
Asia generally,	263	673	....	....
Africa generally,	15,065	11,731	10,552	2,352
Europe generally,	....	....	....	400
West Indies generally,	....	14,560	....	....
East Indies generally,	....	1,822	....	....
South Seas and Pacific Ocean,	57,218	70,282	....	....
Northwest Coast of America,	596	1,254	....	....
Sandwich Islands,	....	....	....	....
Uncertain places,	148	451	....	285
Total,	2,035,486	2,053,977	910,563	930,275

TREASURY DEPARTMENT, REGISTER'S OFFICE, November 22, 1845. R. H. GILLET, Register.

FOREIGN TRADE IN METALS.

We have received our files of the London Mining Journal by the last steamer, and give below such extracts as we think most interesting to our readers, with full accounts of the prices of metals in the English market up to 28th ultimo.

The following extract will show that the English miners are taking the alarm at the proposition before Parliament to reduce the duties on foreign ores:

"As we predicted some weeks since, the anti-English mineral league has made further attempts, if not progressed, in its movements; and while we may be said not to have been sleeping at our posts, we have deemed it prudent rather to watch the enemy and prepare ourselves for the attack, than to enter into the field without first being acquainted with the tactics, and the power which they are capable of putting forward. The time, however, would appear now to have arrived, that we must call upon the staff, that a commission must issue, requiring all embarked in the cause to lend their aid; and while we count so many regulars, we need not beat for recruits—as volunteers, we doubt not, will readily come forward, willing to fight not only their own battles but those of the labourers, who are dependant on them. Ever have we upheld the working miners' cause, and while our columns are devoted to the mining interest, we shall have no hesitation in endeavouring to raise columns of miners to support the mining industry of this country, despite the capitalist, who would sacrifice England to obtain an increased per centage on his investment in foreign mines. * * * *

"It is painful to contemplate a change, such as all must be prepared for, if these 'smelto' merchants and their dupes have their sway with the minister; however, we still hope that Sir Robert Peel has sufficient honesty left, after the many slides he has made, to deal out something like evenhanded justice.

"We have some 300 or 400 mines at work in Cornwall, there are, say, 60,000 persons employed; in Ireland and Wales, we will take the number at 15,000: thus making an aggregate of 70,000, irrespective of those who are dependant on them. Let us, on the other side, take the number of smelters amalgamated with those of home produce, who, according to the ticketing papers, constitute some six houses, and employ 2,000 men. The question which arises out of this, admits of no argument—it is conclusive. In the one case we have a vast outlay of capital, which, if we may judge from the market value, and that assumed as to the respective mines, is no less than tens of millions—thousands of adventurers being engaged and interested therein; while with the smelters, six houses, perhaps, have embarked, in the whole, some two millions of capital, which, we take it, will cover the whole amount. * * * *"

There is much more of this article in the English paper, but we have not space for it, and copy thus much, merely to show the excitement among the English miners, on the proposition to reduce or abolish the duty on foreign ores.

THE COPPER TRADE.

The deputation of gentlemen interested in the copper trade, who had the interview with Sir Robert Peel on Saturday, consisted of Lord Sandon, M. P., Mr. Masterman, M. P., Mr. Muntz, M. P., Mr. Thornely, M. P., Mr. Parker, M. P., Sir Howard Douglas, M. P., Mr. Russel Ellice, Mr. Druce, Mr. Budd, Mr. Armstrong, Mr. Brownell, Mr. Hegan, Mr. Rowe, Mr. Muir, Mr. W. R. Lloyd, Mr. Thomas Lloyd, Mr. Masterman, Mr. Templeman, Mr. Gibbs, and Mr. Leckey.

The present state of the export trade of copper ores from Chili and Cuba was detailed at length by Mr. Brownell, and the disadvantages suffered by the restrictions on imports to the smelters in this country clearly explained; the necessity of obtaining a good supply of the superiour ores of South America; and the disadvantageous competition they found from new establishments in the United States, who obtained their raw material unencumbered with the impost chargeable in this country, were urged by Mr. Vivian and Mr. Keates.

Sir R. Peel replied, that the revenue derived from these ores was upwards of £65,000; and that, though the imports from Chili had fallen off, the quantity from Cuba had increased.

Mr. Masterman stated his belief that this source of revenue would soon entirely decline.

Mr. **Muntz** pleaded for his Birmingham constituents, that they considered it a great hardship that the principle of the late reduction on import was not consistently carried out in this instance; and they had cause to complain,' that, while foreign manufactured articles of brass and copper were to be admitted at a reduced rate, the raw material was still to be burdened with a heavy duty. He produced some specimens of superiour copper, obtained from Chilian and other ores, and referred to a former interview with the Premier, when he had entered into further details.

Mr. **Parker** said, that the Sheffield manufacturers were affected by it, in competition with foreign manufacturers.

Mr. W. R. **Lloyd** produced a specimen of Belgian brass ware, and confirmed the remarks about competing manufacturers. He stated that as many as 30 mechanics, earning from 18s. to 30s. per week, employed in the brass foundry trade, had lately been engaged in Birmingham, by agents from New York, at the rate of nine dollars per week, with a free passage for themselves and families, and secured provision for a certain period; that this was a question deeply interesting to the manufacturers and merchants, as well as the consideration of having such desirable produce as returns from countries whither we exported a large quantity of manufactured goods. That Birmingham merchants had often felt the inconvenience, lately, of having remittances from Cuba by bills on New York and other circuitous routes, all so much to the prejudice of their profits on their shipments. That the inconsistent imposition on the raw material, while the duty was to be reduced on foreign manufactured articles, might be compared to the policy of admitting French bread at a reduced rate, while a heavy tax continued on corn from the continent. He begged to read the following petition from the Birmingham manufacturers, which had been presented in Parliament, affecting the interests of a large population:

"THE PETITION OF THE MERCHANTS AND MANUFACTURERS OF BIRMINGHAM

"Humbly Showeth—That the manufacturers of Birmingham, and its neighbourhood, consume annually upwards of 5,000 tons of fine copper, in the working-up of which, and in the composition of brass in the greatest variety of forms, for home and foreign use, a very large proportion of the population is employed.

That the export of goods, of which copper forms a material part, is upwards of 12,000 tons from this town.

That it is an increasing trade, from the extent and variety of the articles now produced from this material.

That it is of the utmost importance that such a supply of copper be obtained at the cheapest rate, seeing that the manufactured goods have to compete with those of all other countries.

That a steady and moderate price can only be ensured by allowing the importation of the raw ores into this country duty free, in accordance with the principles recently advanced by her Majesty's Government.

That copper has, within the last twelve months, advanced in price from 10 to 12 per cent., and your memorialists are much disappointed that, in the recent statement made by Government to Parliament, copper ore is not included in the list of articles, the duty on which it is proposed to abolish, being persuaded that if it be retained the the ores will be smelted elsewhere, and that foreign consumers of copper and brass will obtain a supply of metal, of the best quality, on better terms than your memorialists.

That the abolition of the duty is also the more necessary, seeing that it is proposed to reduce the duty on foreign copper and brass manufactures."

Mr. **Thomas Lloyd** said, that having recently visited the island of Cuba, he had seen shipments of copper ore at the Havana, making for the United States, which, but for the restrictive duty, would have been sent to this country; and that while this impost lasted, injury was sustained by merchants, in the way of disadvantageous returns, to a serious extent, by the Americans and other foreigners smelting these ores, and supplying the copper and manufactured goods in markets which we had hitherto enjoyed.

Other gentlemen explained the danger of forcing into existence, unnaturally, a trade which, however we might afterwards regret and endeavour to reverse our restrictive measures, would thus have obtained a footing abroad, and ultimately supersede us in one of the most important branches of national industry.

Sir R. **Peel** did not give any assurance of relief, but appeared to pay great attention to all that was brought before him.

PRICE OF IRON IN FRANCE.

From St. Dizier we are informed, that the proprietors of several of the high furnaces have sold the produce of their manufacture up to the end of May, 1847. The amount of these sales is about 10,000,000 lbs., at the price of £7 4s. 2d., to £7 8s. 4d.—the metal taken at the furnace. Other sales of white cast metal, deliverable at Gray, have also been entered into with the south at £8 8s. 4d. The expense of carriage being at the charge of the sellers, £1, the price of £7 8s. 4d., for the cast metal of the Marne, has been well established. The demands for beaten iron, made by coal, are very limited—and the forges, which have been hitherto in full work, are beginning to want samples. The forge masters have, however, announced their intention of maintaining the prices at £16. This will be easy enough for the furnaces in full blast, or partly so—but those that have already a full stock on hand will, in all probability, give way a little, so as to keep up their connexion The price of flattened iron, delivered at St. Dizier, maintains itself at £14 8s. 4d. to £14 16s. 8d., according to the importance of the demands, which, it appears, are on the increase, although the iron trade generally in France is in a languid state, and not half the furnaces in full blast—the furnace and forge masters waiting, with much interest, to see the decision the Government and the Chambers will come to, respecting the admission of British and other foreign iron, and cast metal for shipbuilding, &c.

THE IRON TRADE IN BELGIUM.

At the last meeting of the forge masters, held at Namur on the 3d of March, it was decided that a rise should take place, to come into operation on the 15th inst. Cast metal, made by coke, was increased by 4s. 2d. per 1,000 lbs., which brings the price of hard iron to £5 8s. 4d. per 1,000 lbs., middling £5, and soft £4 12s. 6d., delivered at their destination—10d. discount being allowed when taken at the furnace. Flattened iron in bars, made by coke, has also risen 10d. the 2 cwt.—that is to say, No. 1 to £1 10s., No. 2 to £1 3s. 4d., and No. 3 to £1 5s.—delivered free at Namur, Charleroi, Mons, Brussels, Louvain, Tirlemont, Malines, Antwerp, Ghent, and St. Trond. These prices are obligatory for all localities beyond those designated. Notwithstanding the general tendency to a rise they have maintained, the cast metal, made by wood, in the department of Entre-Sambre and Meuse, at 15s. 6d.—that of the Meuse, 15s. Moulding metal, made by coke—No. 1, 14s.; No. 2, 10s.; and No. 3, 12s. 6d.; refining metal, 10s. the 2 cwt.—taken at the furnace, with a reduction of 5d. for the exportations to France. The iron bandages, made by wood, in the Entre-Sambre and Meuse, £1 15s. the 2 cwt.; bars, &c., £1 12s. 6d. The iron made by wood in the Meuse, for bandages or hoops, £1 10s; bars for splitting, &c., £1 9s. 2d.—taken to the same destination as the iron made by coke. The iron trade generally, throughout Belgium, is improving rapidly, and the furnaces are chiefly in full blast—and extensive operations are expected to take place during the present year, as the demand for iron and cast metal is daily increasing.

LATEST CURRENT PRICES OF METALS,

London, *March* 27, 1845.

	£	s.	£	s.	d.
Iron—Bar *a*, Wales...ton	0	0—	8	15	0
" London.....	0	0—	9	10	0
Nail rods, "	0	0—	10	5	0
Hoop, (Staf.) "	0	0—	11	15	0
Sheet, " "	0	0—	12	15	0
Bars, " "	0	0—	11	0	0
Welsh coal-blast foundry pig...	5	0—	5	15	0
Scotch pig *b*, Clyde...	0	0—	3	10	0
Rails................	0	0—	10	15	0
Russian, CCND *c*....	0	0—	16	0	0
" PSI.........	0	0—	16	0	0
" Gourieff.....	0	0—	14	10	0
" Archangel...	0	0—	13	12	6
Swedish *d*, on the spot.	0	0—	11	10	0
" Steel, fagt...	0	0—	16	5	0
" " kegs *e*.	0	0—	15	0	0
Copper—Tile *f*.....	0	0—	92	0	0
Tough cake..........	0	0—	93	0	0
Best selected........	0	0—	96	0	0

	£	s.	£	s.	d.
Copper—Ord. sheets. lb.	0	0—	0	0	10½
" bottoms..	0	0—	0	0	11½
Tin—Com. blocks *g*, cwt.	0	0—	4	19	0
" bars........	0	0—	5	0	0
Refined...........	0	0—	5	1	0
Straits *h*..........	4	4—	4	5	0
Banca.............	4	6—	4	7	0
Tin Plates—Ch. IC *i*, bx.	1	10—	1	12	0
" IX.....	1	16—	1	18	0
Coke, IC..........	0	0—	1	6	0
" IX..........	0	0—	1	12	0
Lead—Sheet *k*......ton	0	0—	20	10	0
Pig refined........	0	0—	21	10	0
" common......	0	0—	18	10	0
" Spanish, in bnd	18	0—	1	18	0
" American....	0	0—	——		
Spelter—Cake *l*.......	19	10—	19	12	6
Zinc—Sheet *m*, export*.	0	0—	30	0	0
Quicksilver n.......lb.	0	0—	0	4	6
Refined Metal.......ton	0	0—	——		

(*From our Correspondent.*)

Iron.—In Welsh and Staffordshire very little doing, and prices are about 5s. lower than those quoted in last week's Mining Journal. Scotch pig has been in fair demand at 70s. for exportation, and many sales have been made. A few sales of Russian, at about prices quoted, but in Swedish nothing doing.

Copper is maintained at quotations, but the business in it is very limited.

Tin is dull, and we quote a shade lower than last week. A small lot of Straits was sold on the 23d inst., at 85s.

Tin Plates in very limited demand.

Lead.—English is not so brisk as it was a few weeks ago, but there is no yielding in prices. No soft Spanish. The only parcel of American, and which was at Liverpool, was sold on the 23d inst. In *Spelter* very little doing.

GLASGOW IRON TRADE.

March 20.—Transactions are chiefly confined to orders for immediate shipment, in which there is a good deal doing. A sale of No. 3 was made yesterday at 67s. 6d., but for a choice of Nos., 70s. require to be paid, which we quote as the price.—*National Advertiser.*

March 21.—The price of Scotch pig iron delivered here, may be quoted to-day at 70s. per ton, nett cash. Extensive sales have been made this week at 70s., 69s., and 68s., cash: and at 71s., 72s. 6d., and 74s., by bill at three and four months. Common bars, £9 10s.; railway bars, £11; railway chairs, £12 10s. per ton each.

March 24.—This week there has been little variation in prices. Notwithstanding the large and daily shipments, we understand considerable parcels are offering at 70s., but no buyers above 68s. and 69s. for No. 1; we, therefore, quote 70s. as the price for No. 1 quality.—*National.*

A GLANCE AT THE OLD WORLD.

By the Caledonia, we have the magazines and periodicals for the month of April. We find the following interesting items:

SCIENTIFIC.

The Edinburgh Journal contains a paper on a shower of volcanic dust, which fell in the Orkneys on the 2d of September, 1845. It is nearly ascertained that an eruption of the volcano Hecla, in Iceland, took place that morning, and the dust in question must have travelled through the air six hundred miles. It resembled ground pumice stone.

In an article on the origin of quartz and metalliferous veins, we find many curious facts stated, worthy the attention of our geologists. It is stated, among other things, that the mean quantity of silver in the Mexican ores is but 2¾ ounces in every hundred weight of mineral. The silver mines of Lake Superiour are much richer.

In the same number we perceive an able contribution from the pen of B. Silliman, Esq., of New Haven, on the chemical composition of calcareous corals. Professor Pictet furnishes an essay on the distribution of fossils, laying down the following deductions from observations and experience:

1st. The species of animals belonging to one geological epoch, have lived neither before nor after that epoch; so that each formation has its fossil species, and no species can be found in two formations of a different age.

2d. The differences which exist between extinct faunas and the animals now living, are so much greater in proportion as these faunas are more ancient; that is, the more anciently have formations been deposited, the more widely do the remains of the animals they contain differ from those which now inhabit our globe.

3d. The comparison of the faunas of the different epochs, shows that the temperature on the surface of the earth has undergone variation.

4th. The species which have lived in ancient epochs, have had a more extensive geographical distribution than those which exist in our own days.

5th. The faunas of the most ancient formations are composed of animals of a more imperfect organization, and the degree of perfection rises in proportion as we approach the most recent epochs.

Pictet adds, that, in his opinion, the law of successive creations is true, on the whole, and the most admissible theory.

We have, also, a learned treatise on the habitation and destruction of the mammoths, by the celebrated Murchison.

The Vienna Cabinet of Meteorites contains two hundred and fifty-eight specimens, twenty-five of them are of meteoric iron.

It is said that metallic roofs are a protection from the consequences of a stroke of lightning.

At Puzzuoli there is a gradual subsidence of the land. In March, 1819, the floor of the temple of Jupiter Serrapis, was elevated 6 inches above the level of the sea. On the 11th of May, 1845 it was covered at low water to the depth of 18 inches, and 28½ inches at high tide. The cicerone in attendance there, declared to a traveller, that during the last 30 years he had noticed a change, equivalent to 3 feet 6 inches, in the height of the sea, on the piers of the bridge of Caligula.

A large deposit of black bituminous coal has been found in Chatham Island, one of the Gallipagos.

Laing, the traveller, endeavours to show that the absence of a feudal nobility in Norway has, in part, been owing to the want of proper building materials with which to erect castles! There are not even fragmentary remains of these structures in that country.

An attempt is making to introduce into Europe the cultivation of the Aracacha, which has a nourishing root, and is nearly as good as the potato. The disease of this last vegetable has become apparently so general, as to direct the attention of the scientific to the necessity of obtaining a substitute.

Col. Saline attempts to account for the warm winters in England, by the fact that the Gulf Stream now extends to the shores of Europe, instead of terminating, as formerly, at the Azores.

In the April number of the Annals of Natural History, we find many interesting papers, and a continuation of the botanical researches of Moritz Willkomm in Spain.

At a recent meeting of the Entomological Society, Mr. Doubleday presented a specimen of a new species of Saturnia from this country, having the sexes alike.

We hear, from the English Patent Office, that the Vulcanised India rubber, manufactured under Hancock's patent, is applied to the improvement of girths, belts, and bandages.

A working model of a locomotive is now exhibiting in London, which is driven by compressed air. Some sanguine persons think it will change the system of locomotion. We believe not, as the power of the steam engine used to compress the air, had much better be applied directly to the locomotive.

Paddle-box boats have been abandoned in England.

Clocks moved by gravitation and electro-magnetism have been invented in England, and are said to keep time with great steadiness.

A room is being constructed on the top of the Royal observatory Paris, for the use of Arago, the walls of which are to be of pure chrystal.

An expanding screw propeller has been invented by a Mr. Oxley. We have seen a model of a very ingenious vertical submerged wheel in this city which we should like to see tried, the principle of which we are not at liberty yet to mention.

The Great Britain steamer is undergoing an entire change and renovation in her machinery, at Liverpool. It is said a series of blunders in her original construction will be made known to the public.

FINE ARTS.

The annual exhibition of the works of living artists opened at Paris on the 16th of March. The number of religious pictures is, as usual, extraordinarily great, and of portraits, as usual, ten times too many. There are more marine-pieces than one generally sees in a Parisian exhibition, and perhaps fewer battles. Scenery, domestic life, and in fact every class of painting, is exposed, and there is, of course, every description of execution, from excellently good to abominably bad. The number of works exhibited in 2,412; 4,753 having been sent, it follows that the jury, as the selecting committee is called, have rejected not fewer than 2,341, among which are some of men of acknowledged eminence, which ought to have been saved from so severe a fate. The 2,412 accepted works consist of 2,107 paintings, miniatures, and aquarelles; 135 pieces of sculpture; 39 of architecture; 131 of engraving and lithography. The number of works exhibited is eighty more than last year, eleven less than in 1844, and less, very considerably, than in 1831, '33, '35, and '39. The present is the seventy-ninth exhibition since the foundation of the exhibition by Louis XIV. in 1699. In 1699, the number of works exhibited was only 210; in 1704 it was 384; under Louis XV. it never exceeded 321; under Louis XVI. the highest number was 794; under the Republic, in 1793, it was 1,050; under Napoleon, in 1804, it was 1,321; under Louis XVIII., in 1824, it was 2,320; and in the solitary exposition under Charles X. it was 1,536. The total number of works exhibited since the elevation of Louis Phillippe to the throne is not less than 34,618. Of the 2,412 works exhibited this year, it is calculated that not five hundred altogether will be sold, notwithstanding the extensive patronage which these good Parisians boast of bestowing upon the fine arts; and even of those five hundred, the greater portion, it is said, will be taken by foreigners.

Gen. Tom Thumb has appeared in the drama, representing a pigmy character in a piece produced for him at the Lyceum.

La Chevalier Renoux.—The death of this artist at Paris is announced in the Paris journals; and he is regretted as the painter of the beautiful pictures now exhibiting at the Diorama in Regent's Park.

We find the artisans of Paris are turning their attention to ornamental work. In the last number of the Art Union, no less than thirteen beautiful drawings of key handles, from Parisian models, are presented.

The gable pediment of the new Opera House, in Berlin, has been cast in zinc, and represents Opera and the Dance.

The porcelain manufactory at Worcester, England, is now producing the most beautiful specimens of art, in the shape of bottles, candelebra, vases, cups, and pitchers.

The Portland Vase has been so exquisitely repaired, as to give scarce any sign of its recent injury.

The manufacture of glass at Stonebridge, England, is almost arrived at perfection. In the Art Union, of April, are twenty-four drawings of the last forms of glass ware, which our own manufacturers would do well to examine.

We notice the death of H. Gally Knight, Esq., a gentleman of wealth and taste, whose antiquarian and architectural researches have contributed much to the cause of the fine arts in England.

The death of Henry Inman is feelingly noticed abroad, and his great reputation acknowledged.

Fanny Elssler was so beset with hospitable requests, at Foligno, to lodge with various distinguished inhabitants, that she graciously drew lots in order to decide the question.

LITERARY.

Victor Hugo has announced a new volume of poetry, under the title of *Les Cloches*.

Mrs. S. C. Hall has published an ingenious critique on what she terms Juvenile Illustrated Literature.

Col. McKenney's History of the Indian tribes of North America is attracting attention abroad, and is received as a work of the deepest interest.

We find an account of Eugene Sue, which is worth condensing. He was born in Paris, 1804. The Empress Josephine and Eugene Beauharnois were his sponsors. He belongs to an ancient family, and the majority of his relations have been distinguished physicians. His father was chief of the medical staff of the Imperial Guard, and the author of several popular works. He became physician to the king, on the Restoration taking place. Eugene, also, adopted the medical profession, entered the army, and was present at the siege of Cadiz and the capture of Trocadero and Tarafa. In 1824, he entered the naval service, and made several voyages. In 1828, he was at the battle of Navarino, and, on his return, left the service and took up his abode in Paris, where he lived upon a paternal inheritance in a handsome manner. He amused himself with painting till 1830, when an old comrade of the artillery awoke him to the idea of writing romances, which should equal those of Marryatt and Cooper. His success has been unexampled. The following is a list of his principal works: Kernoch the Pirate, Plick and Plock, Attar Gull, The Salamander, and the Watch Tower of Koatoen, History of the French Marine, Latreaumont, Jean Cavalier, and Letorieres, Commander of Malta, Arthur, La Concaratcha, Dyleytar, Hotel Lambert, Matildo, Mysteries of Paris, Female Blue Beard, Wandering Jew, Dasamar Latreument, The Pretrendress, and others, whose titles we do not recollect.

Dr. Metcalfe's work on Caloric, is at last attracting great attention abroad.

Among the slain at the Indian battle of Ferozeshah, on the 21st and 22d of December last, literature finds the name of one who could be but ill spared from its ranks: Lieut. Croly, the son of the Rev. Dr. Croly, of London, fell on that occasion. His pen and pencil were actively employed during his brief residence in India, and we owe more to him for accurate sketches of that country, than to any other artist of late years. He was brave, amiable, and good looking, but war makes no distinction in its havoc.

A new pronouncing Dictionary, by Gilbert, is announced, embracing not only the words in every day's use among speakers and writers, but all others belonging to arts, science, and manufacture.

NOTICES OF NEW BOOKS.

The Standard Pronouncing Dictionary of the French and English Languages, in two parts. Part one, French and English—part two, English and French; the first part comprehending words in common use—terms connected with science—terms belonging to the Fine Arts—4,000 Historical names—4,000 Geographical names—11,000 terms lately published, with the Pronunciation of every word according to the French Academy, and the most eminent Lexicographers and Grammarians, together with 750 Critical Remarks, in which the various methods of Pronouncing employed by different Authors, are investigated and compared with each other. The second part, containing a Copious Vocabulary of English Words and Expressions, with the Pronunciations according to Walker. The whole preceded by a Practical and Comprehensive System of French Pronunciation. By Gabriel Surenne, F. A. S. E., French Teacher in Edinburgh, Corresponding Member of the French Grammatical Society of Paris, Lecturer on Military History in the Scottish Naval and Military Academy, and author of several works on Education. New York: D. APPLETON & Co., 200 Broadway. Philadelphia: G. S. APPLETON, 148 Chesnut street. Cincinnatti: DERBY, BRADLEY, & Co., 113 Main street. 1846.

This work must have been one of very great labour, as it is evidently of deep research. We have given it a careful examination, and are perfectly safe in saying, we have never before seen any thing of the kind at all to compare with it. Our space will not permit us to give more than this general testimony to its value. Long as the title is, and much as it promises, our examination of the work proves that all the promises are fulfilled, and we think no student of the French language should, for a moment, hesitate to possess himself of it. Nor, indeed, will it be found less useful to the accomplished French scholar, who will find in it a fund of information which can no where be met with in any one book. Such a work has, for a long time, been greatly needed, and Mr. Surenne has supplied the deficiency in a masterly style. We repeat, therefore, our well digested opinion, that no one in search of a knowledge of the niceties of the French language, should be without it.

Journal of Researches into the Natural History and Geology of the countries visited during the voyage of H. M. S. Beagle round the world, under the command of Capt. Fitz Roy, R. N.: by Charles Darwin, M. A., F. R. S., in two volumes. New York: HARPER & BROTHERS, publishers, 82 Cliff street. 1846.

Among the many obligations we owe to the present advanced state of science in almost all its branches, we know of none of more real importance, than that of the great increase of knowledge we now derive from its application to discovery in distant regions. Formerly, a voyage round the world was a mighty affair, performed with the greatest exposure, and with few additions to scientific knowledge. Now, owing to the vast improvement in the building, equipping, and sailing of ships and fleets, such a voyage may be made almost a party of pleasure; and through the advancements in science, we are informed of the topography, geology, and natural history of the most unfrequented regions, in the fullest manner.

These reflections have never been more brought before us, than on a careful examination of this book, more particularly so far as the western hemisplere is concerned. Mr. Darwin has given the very best, most clear, and detailed account we have seen of South America, and his Polynesian residence is full of interest. Indeed, the whole book bears the impress of science, with a happy descriptive talent, while it is written in an unaffected and easy style, which adds much to the pleasure of reading it.

Appleton's Library of Popular Reading. Price 25 cents.

The History and Extraordinary Adventures of Margaret Catchpole, a Suffolk girl, by the Rev. Richard Corbold—first American, from the third English, edition—with two illustrations. Philadelphia: GEO. S. APPLETON, 148 Chesnut street. Cincinnati: DERBY, BRADLEY, & Co., 113 Main street.

This is one of the most extraordinary narrations we ever remember to have read. A young woman, of apparently excellent natural dispositions, becomes violently enamoured of a worthless character, and adheres to him through every awful scene into which he is thrown by his vices. She steals a horse, and is condemned to death—escapes from prison—is recaptured, and, finally, banished to Botany Bay, where she marries, reputably, an old lover of her's, named John Barry, who had been as faithful to her as she had been to her infamous lover until his death. The preface tells us the story is true; if so, it is certainly the most wonderful one that can be vouched for.

Margarite De Valois, a Historical Romance, by Alexander Dumas. New York: D. APPLETON & Co., 200 Broadway. Philadelphia: GEO. S. APPLETON, No. 148 Chesnut street. Cincinnati: DERBY, BRADLEY, & Co., 113 Main street.

We cannot better describe this romance than by the following sentence from the advertisement: "At midnight, on the 24th of August, the tocsin sounded, and the massacre of St. Bartholomew began."

It is at this stirring period of French history, abounding in horror and bloodshed, and in plots and intrigues, that Mr. Dumas commences Margarite de Valois." Beginning with the marriage of Henry and Margarite, he introduces, in his spirited and attractive style, various episodes, real and imaginary, bearing on the great massacre, from the first fury of which, Henry himself, doomed to death by the remorseless Catharine de Medicis, was only saved by the indecision of Charles IX., and the energy of Margarite of Valois. * * *

Those who would read an account of these horrible events, filled in with spirited and varied dialogue, so as to bring them before him as though he were an eye-witness, will read this romance with the most intense feeling and interest.

Wiley and Putnam's Library of American Books.

Nos. 13 and 14.—*Typee, a Peep at Polynesian Life, during a four months residence in a valley of the Marquesas, with notices of the French occupation of Tahiti, and the provisional cession of the Sandwich Islands to Lord Paulet; by Herman Melville; in two parts.* New York and London: WILEY & PUTNAM, 161 Broadway; 6 Waterloo Place.

A very curious account is given in these volumes of what the author saw and felt during his residence in a valley of one of the Marquesas islands. He describes, in simple and plain narrative, their manners, customs, and mode of life, which, though not very full of incident, are, nevertheless, far from being devoid of interest. The women he describes as uncommonly beautiful; the men, in almost every instance, of lofty stature, scarcely ever less than six feet in height; and he thus further speaks of them: "I was especially struck by their physical strength and beauty, which they displayed by their great superiority, in this respect, over the inhabitants of the neighbouring bay of Nukuheva. In beauty of form, they surpassed any thing I had ever seen; not a single instance of deformity was observable in all the throng attending the revels." Of their government, he says: "During the time I lived among the Typees, no one was ever put upon trial for any offence against the public. To all appearance, there were no courts of law or equity; in short, there were no legal proceedings whatever, and yet every thing went on in the valley with a harmony and smoothness as unparallelled, I will venture to assert, as in the most select, refined, and pious association of mortals in Christendom."

No. 15.—*The Wilderness and the War Path, by James Hall, Author of "Legends of the West," "Border Tales," "Sketches of the West," "Notes on the Western States," &c., &c.* New York: Wiley & Putnam, 161 Broadway. 1846.

Mr. Hall is justly celebrated for his happy talent in delineating life in the West. We have read many of his former books on Western scenery, manners, and character; and, on looking through the "War Path," we find it full of those sketches of the Indian and his habitudes—those descriptions of Western scenery and Western feelings, in which few are his equals, and none, certainly, excel him. There are seven separate tales in this volume, viz: "The Black Steed of the Prairies," "The War Belt, a Legend of North Bend," "The New Moon, a Tradition of the Omawhas," "The Red Sky of the Morning," "The Capuchin," "The Dark Maid of Illinois," "The Indian Hater," and "Peter Featherton."

No. 16.—*Scenes and Thoughts in Europe, by an American.* New York: Wiley & Putnam. 1846.

Travels in Europe are "as plenty as blackberries," still we are always pleased to see and read them. We have read some we prefer to the book under notice, but it is fully equal to the average in its descriptive department, and some of the thoughts are quite to our taste.

Wiley & Putnam's Library of Choice Reading.

No. LV.—*The Cricket on the Hearth, by Charles Dickens.* New York: Wiley & Putnam, 161 Broadway.

This, we think, one of the best of the many tales of its inimitable author—of high moral, drawn from humble life.,

It is the story of a Carrier who had married a woman much younger than himself. The reader is introduced to their domestic scenes, which, though homely, lead to touching traits of character, described in the author's happiest vein. There is, also, introduced a blind girl and her aged father, which adds no little to the general interest of the tale.

No. LVI.—*Keats' Poetical Works, in two parts—part the first containing, Endymion and Lamia," "Isabella," "The Eve of St. Agnes," "Hyperion," and Miscellaneous Poems.*

A recent critic says of Keats: "In originality, Keats has seldom been surpassed. His works rise like an exhalation. His language had been formed on a false system, but, ere he died, was clarifying itself from its more glaring faults, and becoming copious, clear, and select. His genius lay in his body like sun-fire in a dew drop, at once beautifying and burning it up."

No. LXI.—*Theodolph the Icelander, and Aslauga's Knight, from the German of Baron de la Motte Fouque, in two parts.*

Theodolph is a remarkable story, in the true German style. Two betrothed lovers, from the Provençal coast, near Marseilles, are shipwrecked on the coast of Iceland, where they are married, and pass the winter. In the spring, they are taken home by Theodolph, in an Iceland vessel; but having left there in disgrace with the lady's father, they cannot obtain his forgiveness, and are landed in Tuscany. There they reside for some time, when Theodolph returns to them just as their castle is destroyed. They then go with him to Greece, and, finally, to Constantinople, in search of a sister of the bride, of whom Theodolph is enamoured, and to whom he is finally united, after embracing Christianity. As a romance, the book possesses interest, but still greater as it gives much information of Iceland, its manners and customs, and also of Constantinople and the Turks.

Aslauga's Knight is a short romance, at the end of the second volume. Froda, who is the knight, devotes himself to Aslauga, who, from being the daughter of a peasant, became queen of Denmark. Although she had lived a century before, Froda was so enamoured on reading of her, that he devoted himself to her memory. A tournament was to be held on the banks of the Maine, the successful knight at which was to wed Hildegardis, the orphan mistress of a great castle. Thither Froda repaired, but on journeying forward, he met the young knight Edwald, who joined him, and who triumphed at the tournament, and wedded Hildegardis, Froda having had no such design on entering the lists.

The Old Continental, or, the Price of Liberty, by the Author of " The Dutchman's Fireside," &c., &c., in two volumes. New York: Paine & Burgess, 60 John street. 1846.

Under this title, the author has given to his readers a very good idea of the spirit, the sufferings, and the sacrifices, to which the American Revolution subjected, as he himself justly says, " a class of people who are seldom, if ever, individualized in history."

The author, the Hon. James K. Paulding, with his acknowledged cleverness as a writer of much interest, has kept up the narrative of many and various moving scenes, with spirit throughout; and, in the three principal characters, Col. Hammond, " the Old Continental," his daughter Jane, and John, the hero of the tale, has made a very clever trio, fully imbued with that fervour in the cause of their country, to the general prevalence of which, the historians of the Revolution have borne ample testimony.

John was equally true in his love, and faithful in his patriotic devotion, while Jane, though a very woman in sentiment, with all the feelings and delicacy of her sex, bore her privations with becoming fortitude, and their happy union, in the conclusion, as the reward of the heroism of the one, and the fortitude of the other, is fully sympathized in by the reader, and winds up the story in a manner the most satisfactory to all parties.

The Siege of Litchfield: A tale illustrative of the Great Rebellion, by the Rev. William Gresley, M. A., author of " Bernard Leslie," and " The Forest of Arden." New York: Published by James A. Sparks, 161 Fulton street.

Mr. Gresley has given in this tale, a very graphic picture of one of the most heroic defences of a fortress, made in the service of the unfortunate King Charles I., during the war between him and his Parliament. The narrative is interspersed with many very interesting traits of individual character, and, taken altogether, gives a good idea of the bravery, loyalty, and sufferings of the loyalists, during that most trying period. At this time, when Carlyle's Cromwell, and Guizot's history of the civil war, have just been published, this book forms a link in the chain of the events of that dire calamity to Old England, which must excite a desire for its perusal.

Charles Lever, or the Man of the Nineteenth Century: by the Rev. William Gresley, M. A., author of " Bernard Leslie" and " The Forest of Arden." New York: Published by James A. Sparks, 161 Fulton street.

A beautiful moral tale, showing the dangers of a want of early education, and of access to sound religious instruction. The scene covers various departments of life, is replete with touching incident, and is rendered attractive by a description of socialism, as advocated by Robert Owen, showing its evil tendency, and the manner in which it strikes at the root of the religious sentiment, and thus degrades the individual, while sapping the foundations of the Christian religion.

Elizabeth Benton, or Religion in connexion with Fashionable Life. New York: Harper & Brothers, publishers, 82 Cliff street. 1846.

This is a very pleasing and attractive little book, with an excellent design, well executed. It is intended to imbue young minds with the importance of early piety, and does so, in a manner, calculated to amuse, while it instructs.

"Omne tulit punctum qui miscuit utile dulce."

Uncle John, or " It is too much Trouble;" by Mary Orme.

" I know not whether angels weep, but men
Have wept enough—for what?—to weep again!"

New York: Harper & Brothers, publishers, 82 Cliff street.

Another touching story. Uncle John is, like " Uncle Toby," full of heart. No young person can read this very pretty tale without improvement.

The Cousins, a Tale of Early Life; by the author of " Conquest and Self Conquest," " Praise and Principle, &c., &c."

" Little children love one another."

" Charity suffereth long and is kind; charity, envieth not; charity vaunteth not its self, is not puffed up."—1 Corinthians, Chap. xiii., v. 4.

New York: Harper & Brothers, publishers, 82 Cliff street.

Parents, who wish their children to be " trained up in the way they should go," should be much obliged to the publishers, for all three of these valuable assistants. The story of the Cousins is a very interesting one, and cannot fail " to raise the genius and to mend the heart."

INDEX,

TO FIRST AND SECOND VOLUMES.

A.

Page.

- Age, progress of.................... 98
- Agriculture, crops in U. S.,......... 91
  - Manufactures and Commerce, by Gen. Tallmadge,............ 707
  - and Free Trade,............... 944
- American Factories at Lowell,...... 129
  - "Mind among the Spindles,"... 264
  - Wages of Labour,..............1138

Page.

- American Institute, Fair and Circular,...........262, 471, 556, 1152
- American vessels captured by England and France,............ 396
- Anastatic Printing,................ 189
- Appleton Nathan, on Walker's Report,........................ 846
  - on Revenue Standard,.......... 931

B.

- Bacon George, essay on copper,..... 116
- Bagging cotton, statistics of,........ 989
- Bangs's Allen, account of Springfield, Mass.,...................... 902
- Bear Valley coal and iron region,.... 171
- Blackstone Valley industrial pursuits, 58
- Blackwood's Magazine on free trade,. 80
- Books, (see reviews.)
- Brazil, visit to.................... 305
  - Rio Janeiro and vicinity,....... 449
  - sketch of political events in.... 514
- Breck Samuel, on continental money, 17
- British capital and public debt,......1142
  - free trade policy,.............. 937
  - tariff policy, effects of.......... 222
  - tariff, proposed alteration in.....1108

C.

- Calhoun John C., his remarks on tariff, 1816,................. 149
- Cambria steamer, remarks on news by 937
- Canals of New York, historical account of..................... 183
  - statistics of.................. 187
  - tonnage, trade, and tolls,....... 284
  - western trade on.............. 284
  - tolls on various articles,........ 285
  - connection with Ohio canals,... 286
  - Ruggles's report,.............. 286
  - revenue and expenditures,...... 364
  - Chenango and Chemung,....... 369
  - Erie enlargement,............. 365
  - effects of, on property,......... 372
  - in United States, list of, length, and cost,................... 568
  - Delaware and Hudson,......... 216
- Capital, increase of, compared with population,................. 109
  - British, and national debt,......1142
- Card spinner, Chase's,....950, 1054, 1157
- Census of the United States,........ 13
  - of State of New York, 1845,.... 564
- Chambers's Thomas, essay on iron trade,........................ 135
- Chase's card spinner,..........950, 1054
- Chicago, statistics and trade of...... 460
- Cleveland, statistics and trade of.... 598
- Clowes John, essay on steam and water power,.................. 443
- Coal, anthracite, trade of U. States,.. 72
  - and iron region of Bear Valley,.. 171
  - and iron mines in France,....... 376
  - field of Allegany co., Maryland,. 431
- Copper, comparative prices of......1002
- Cohoes, water power at............ 444
- Colonies restricted from manufacturing,........................ 112
- Colonial currency,................ 404
- Commerce and navigation of U. S., 15,176
  - essay on.......................1112
- Commerce of U. S. with foreign nations,....................... 181
  - of each State, 1844,............ 283
  - history of, to 1697,............ 297
  - history of, to 1845,............ 387
  - ancient,...................... 292

Page.

Commerce of U. S., 1845,..........1162
English,........................ 296
Raynal and Davenant on.....297, 298
English treaties,............... 298
Navigation act,................. 302
effect of manufactures on,...... 302
Methuen treaty,................. 388
prices of wheat for 60 years,.... 388
table of trade for 87 years,...... 390
U. S. and Great Britain,....... 391
history of, in U. S.,............ 392
analysis of, with U. S.,.......... 403
of U. S. with other American nations,........................ 466
of France,...................... 483
of Holland,..................... 579
of Hanse towns,................. 675
between England and France,... 744
of Portugal,.................... 771
of Spain,....................... 875
of the Lakes,................... 887
of Naples and Sicily,........... 971
of Russia, ...1077
Congdon's J.B., account of N.Bedford, 328
Connecticut, agriculture and manufactures of.................. 634
river, water power at Windsor,, 855
Consumption of foreign merchandise in United States,............ 374
of British manufactures, 1814,... 401
Continental money, history of....... 17
advantages gained by,..... ...29, 35

Page.

Copper, imports of into U. S.,.......1121
mines and trade,...116, 757, 955, 1065, 1164
mining, success of, in Cuba,.... 125
mines of Lake Superiour,....... 278
region visited,................. 814
Corn trade of England,.............. 948
of Europe,...............788, 1032
Cotton planters benefited by tariff,... 8
crop in U. S., 1844,........... 92
bagging manufactured in West,. 93
crops of United States,......... 175
progress of culture in India, 227, 1100
comparative prices of.......226, 400
U. S., when first introduced into England,................... 230
goods consumed in Great Britain, 391
planting in U. S., origin of...... 500
progress and history of a pound 662
quantity spun in Great Britain and United States,......1025, 1028
Coxe Tench, reminiscences of....... 500
address on manufactures, 1787,.. 506
Credit State, means of redeeming,... 10
Cresson's Elliott, letter to T. B. King,.......................1104
Currency of U. S., Ogden's essay on.. 4
benefited by a protective tariff,.. 7
colonial,..................404, 414
history of, in Mass. and R. I.,.... 405
history of, in Maryland,......... 683

D.

Davidge's F. H., essay on progress of the age,.................... 97
Dawes's Rufus, essay on invention,,. 745
Debt public, of Great Britain, its connexion with capital,.........1142

Delaware and Hudson canal, history and progress of.............. 216
Dwight Dr., his address in 1776,.... 322
remarks on destiny of N. America,........................ 322

E.

Education and public schools,....... 415
Prussian system,.............. 417
M. Cousin's report,............ 420
statistics of, in Prussia,........ 428
Electro magnetic telegraph,......... 63
Ellsworth's report on patents, &c.,, 91, 94

Europe, monthly notices of..189, 271, 381, 475, 570, 663, 758, 864, 961, 1066, 1167
Exports of the United States, 1844,.. 16
Exports and imports,... ......177, 1162
Exports from U.S., 1842 and 1844,. 179, 181
of domestic produce, &c.,....... 373
Exports and imports, tables of...375, 953

F.

Factories, American, Mr. Scoresby's account of.................... 129
" Mind among the Spindles,"... 264
Mr. Lyell's remarks on........ 350
Lowell Offering, ,............. 352
Fair of American Institute,..262, 471, 556
national, at Washington,., 1061, 1154
Fall River, Mass., account of....... 723
statistics of.................... 727
Flax and hemp, crop in U. S., 1844,.. 92
Franklin Dr., on national industry,.. 107
Free trade and protection, Blackwood's Magazine,........ 80
in operation in U. S., in 1785,... 392
British,....................... 721

Free trade, effects of on landed interests,...................... 735
letter of W. Brown to J. Rolfe, Esq.,...................... 737
and agriculture,... 944
Free traders, facts for............. 947
Freights on trade with foreign countries,.......................1113
on raw materials for manufacturing,.......................1114
summary of....... 1114
rates of.......................1115
Fresco painting, new method of..... 274
Furman's Gabriel, essay on protection, &c.,... 229

G.

Page.

- German Zollverein, account of...... 236
- Germany, protective system of...232, 236
- Glass, malleable,................ 385
  - manufactures of in U. S ,....... 930
- Gold and silver imported and exported,...................... 952
- Grain raised in U. S.,.............91, 92
  - imported into Great Britain,.... 741
  - quantities and average prices,... 742
  - Continental (European) markets, 743
- Grain, quantities of, in markets of Europe,....................... 790
  - trade of Europe,.............. 768
  - trade of England,............. 948
- Great Britain, increase of wealth in.. 101
  - commercial policy of...... ... 111
  - capital and public debt,........1142
  - ordinary revenue,.............1148
- Griswold's D. D., account of Chicago, 460

H.

- Hanse Towns, commercial history of 675
  - statistics of.................. 679
- Hartford, Conn., agricultural society, 636
  - and New York railroad,........ 749
- Hay, crop of U. S., in 1844,........ 92
- Hemp, culture compared with cotton, 176
  - Billings's and Harrison's patent.. 176
- Hides imported into U. S.,..........1123
- Holland, commercial history of..... 579
  - statistics of................579, 598
- Home market, great value of........ 171
- Hudson Charles, on sub-treasury,....1133
- Humphreys Col., introduces merino sheep into U. S.,............ 215

I.

- Imports and exports of U. S., 177, 178, 953
- Imports of non-enumerated articles,.................. 179, 279
- Increase of wealth in G. Britain,.... 101
- Indian corn introduced into England, 949
- Indigo, culture of, in India,.......... 225
  - formerly exported from U. S.,... 225
- Industry, annual products of, in U.S., 911
- Insurrection at Mexico, 1624,....... 249
- Internal improvements, 11, 13, 183, 284, 363, 568
  - (see canals and railroads)
- Introduction,...................... 1
- Invention, essay on................ 745
- Iron manufacture, statistics of.....35, 36
  - Report on, in 1831,............ 37
  - Detmold's patent,............. 47
  - trade in Great Britain, notices of 48 276, 376, 378, 379, 470, 567, 657, 661, 753, 857, 864, 951, 1065, 1166
  - trade, Chambers's account of... 1135
- Iron trade, price in England,.....146, 157
  - effects of tariff on.............. 158
  - made with anthracite coal,..... 159
  - railway,...................... 160
  - Detmold's and Wells's improvements,..................167, 168
  - enamelling of.................. 273
  - and coal mines in France and Belgium,..............376, 1166
  - American establishment in Russia,........................ 380
  - made in Great Britain,.......... 383
  - railway anthracite,............ 566
  - mines in Italy,................ 568
  - prices in France,......658, 853,1165
  - lighthouses,................... 665
  - quantity made in United States,. 729
  - imported in 1844,............. 730
  - steamers in England,........... 864
  - comparative prices and duties,..1002

L.

- Labour, comparative price of, in United States and Europe,....... 653
  - and population in United States compared,................. 910
  - wages of, in American factories,.1138
- Labourers, English, condition of,.. 1008
  - Mr. Thornton's statements,.....1009
  - wages of.....................1010
  - items of weekly expenditures,..1022
- Lake commerce,.................... 887
- Lawrence's Abbott, letter to W. C. Rives,................892, 1024
  - on wages of labour,............1138
- Lighthouses, cast iron,............ 665
- Linseed imported,..................1120
- Livingston Chancellor, biography of, 257
  - introduces merino sheep,...... 215
- Livingston Edward, biography of,.... 643
- Lockport, N. Y., account of, ... 623
- London Times newspaper,.......... 755
- Lotteries, their common use, formerly, 33
- Lowell factories and operatives,..... 129
  - Offering, remarks on,........... 265
  - as it was, and as it is, ... 523
  - statistics of, 1845,............. 524
  - moral police of corporations,... 526
- Louisiana, sketch of,............... 629
  - sugar and cotton crops,........ 992
  - statistics of sugar,............1004
  - prices of sugar, &c.,...........1000
  - agriculture and commerce of,...1005
  - cotton crop of,................1006

M.

- Manufactures prohibited in British colonies,.................. 113
- Manufactures recommended in city of N. Y.,...................... 358

Page.
Manufactures, statement of, in city, in 1840, ... 363
  relative advantages for, in England, France, and U. States,.. 652
  benefits of, to other interests,...1028
  exhibition of American, at Washington, proposed,......1061, 1154
Martineau Harriet, on American factories, ... 268
Maryland coal mines, ... 431
  provincial currency of,... 683
Massachusetts, statistics of industry, 1159
Mayer Brantz, on Mexico,... 249
Meigs Henry, letter from, ... 322
Mexico, insurrection at, 1624, ... 249
Mining District of Brazil, ... 305
  in France,... 380
  in Europe generally,... 867
  royal schools of France,... 867
Mississippi river, trade on, ... 287
  valley, statistics and trade of, 802, 814
Morris Robert, his speculations and misfortunes, ... 33
  imprisoned for debt,... 33
Morrison's R. N., essay on railroads,.. 347
Morse's Telegraph, account of, ... 65

N.

Naples, some account of, ... 941
Naples and Sicily, commerce of,... 971
  agriculture of,... 975
  manufactures of,...973, 982
  statistics of,...974, 989
  tariff of,... 986
Navigation of United States, effects of treaties on, ...1112
Navigation of U. S., tonnage, 1845,. 1163
  freights and duties,...1113
New Bedford, Mass., account of, ... 328
New England and Virginia compared, 51
  historical facts,... 55
New Orleans and Louisiana, sketch of, 629
  Report of Chamber of Commerce,1004
New York, Census of State, 1845,... 564

O.

Occupations of the people of the United States, ... 15
Ogden James De P., on currency, ... 4
Old World—Glances at,...189, 271, 381, 475, 570, 663, 758, 864, 961, 1066, 1167

P.

Paper Money of French Revolution,. 32
  Continental of United States,... 17
  Massachusetts and R. Island, 406, 414
  Maryland,... 683
Patents, U. S., issued January, 1846,. 856
  " Febru'y, 1846,. 951
  " March, 1846,...1063
  " April, 1846,...1158
Paterson, N. J., History and Statistics of, ... 456
Peel Sir Robert, speech of, ... 533
  remarks on his policy,.....957, 1108
Pennsylvania, a voice from,...1104
Political Economy, writers on,... 541
Population, progress of, in United States,... 14
  of State of New York,... 564
  and labour compared in U. States, 910
Portugal, Commercial History of,... 771
  commerce with United States,.. 781
  tariff of,... 782
  statistics and trade of,...783—787
  Methuen Treaty,... 775
Potatoes, crop in United States, 1844, 92
Potter E. R., on Colonial Currency,.. 405
Printing, Anastatic,... 169
Prison Association, New York,... 553
Progress of the age,... 98
Protection to industry maintains a sound currency,... 7
Providence, R. I., Manufacturing Statistics of,... 857
  and Worcester Railroads,... 58
Prussia, Education in,... 417
Public Debt of Great Britain and Capital,...1142

R.

Railroads, Essay on, ... 343
  abstract of reports,... 347
  speed on English,... 382
  Iron, American anthracite,... 566
Reciprocity, examples of, ... 720
Reviews of New Books—June, ... 94
  July,... 191
  August,... 288
  September, 385
  October,.. 481
  November, 575
  December, 669
  January,.. 763
  February,.. 868
  March,... 968
Reviews of New Books—April, ...1070
  May,...1171
Revenue, United States, decline of, in 1819, ... 399
  standard considered,... 931
Rice Crop, United States, 1844,... 92
Richmond, Va., Manufactures of, ... 631
Rio Janeiro and vicinity described,.. 449
Rittenhouse, Biography of, ... 74
Ruggles's S. B., Report on Canals, &c., 286
Russia, Commercial Policy of, ... 231
  industry and commerce of,...1077
  history, and statistics of,...1078
  area and population,...1081
  divisions and cities,...1082

Page.
Russia, trade with United States,....1064
  commercial system,..............1084
  manufactures, ...1089
  mines and minerals,.............1089
Russia, Treaty with United States,..1093
  General Statistics,..............1094
  Navigation in 1841,.............1099

S.

Salt Tax, amount of, per head,..... 924
Savings Banks in Massachusetts, 927, 1031
Scientific and Literary Notices,..... 189
Scoresby Rev. Mr., on American Factories,................. 129
Sheep, number of, in U. States, 1840, 213
  Merino, when introduced into United States,.............. 215
Sicily, commerce of,.............971, 988
  condition and wages of labourers, 977
  tariff of,...................... 986
Silk crop in United States, 1844,.... 92
  " in France,................ 93
  rags made into silk,............ 93
Silver and gold imported and exported,..................... 952
Smith F. O. J., on Telegraphs,...... 63
Somerville, N. J., Notice of,........ 254
Spain, Commerce of,................ 875
  History and Statistics of,....... 876
  Tariff of,...................... 881
Spain, Navigation and Trade of,..... 883
Specie, exports and imports of,..... 952
Speculations in lands and stocks in 1789—98,................. 33
Springfield, Mass., History of,...... 902
  Statistics of,................. 905
State Prison Monopoly, remarks on,. 357
Steamboat tonnage, United States and and Great Britain,........... 805
  on Western waters,............ 808
  on the Lakes,................. 891
Steamers, war, in Great Britain,..... 864
Steam Power compared with Water Power,..................... 443
Stewart's Andrew, speech on Tariff and Agriculture,............1124
Sub-Treasury, effects of,...........1133
Sugar, maple, clarified,............ 94
  crop of Louisiana,............ 94
  imported,.....................1121

T.

Tallmadge James, on Agriculture, Commerce and Manufactures, 707
Tariff, United States, operation of,... 70
  average rate of duties under,... 71
  British, effects of reduction,.... 116
  question, essay on,............. 222
  British, compared with German, 247
  compared with U. States,...533, 540
  rates of duties,............... 540
  United States, revenue standard considered,.................. 931
Tariffville, Conn., account of,....... 531
Telegraphs, Essay on,.............. 63
  French,...................... 69
Tennessee, Resources and Statistics of, 703
Thompsonville, Conn., account of,.. 529
Thornton, on condition of English labourers,...................1008
Tin, prices of, in England,.863, 957, 1065
Tonnage entered and cleared, 1844,.. 16
  owned in United States,........ 16
  of United States, 1844,........ 281
  of " " 1790,........ 395
  employed in foreign trade,......1117
  increased by manufactures,.....1118
  increase of British,............1120
Trade between England and France,. 744
  (see Commerce and Free Trade.)
Travers's John, account of Paterson, New Jersey,................. 456
Treasury Report, Walker's, noticed,. 729, 846, 892, 908, 989, 1151
  effects of Sub-Treasury,.......1133
Troost G., Essay on Tennessee,..... 702

V.

Virginia and N. England compared,.. 51
Virginia and N. England, hist'l facts, 55

W.

Walker R. J., Secretary of Treasury, his report noticed,..729, 846, 892, 908, 989
  how he sympathizes with the mechanic,..................1151
Water Power at Somerville, N. J.,.. 254
  at Cohoes, New York,......... 443
  at Windsor Locks, Connecticut River,................... 855
  compared with steam,.......... 443
Wellington's Duke of, remarks on free trade,....................... 224
Western United States, resources and trade of,.................... 797
Whale Fishery of New Bedford, 338, 339
Wheat trade of Europe,............ 788
  imported into England,........ 789
  trade of Lake Erie, &c.,....890, 891
  trade of United States and Europe,.......................1032
  product of, in United States,...1033
  consumption of, per head,......1035
  disposition of, crop of 1840,....1036
  crop at different periods,.......1036

Page.
Wheat land in cultivation,..........1037
  various statistics of,.....1040—1044
  effect of British corn laws,.....1044
  Canada trade,.................1046
  prices in United States and Europe,.....................1047
  product and consumption of Great Britain,....................1048
  various statements of,......1049—53
Whittlesey's Chas., account of United States Copper Region,.......1014

Page.
Williams's Edwin, Essay on Wheat Trade,.........................1032
Woollen Manufacture, History of,... 195
Wool, earliest and mode of spinning, 196
  value of shorn, in England,1712, 190
  imported into Great Britain,.... 207
  imported into United States,....1122
Woollens manufactured in England,. 203
  rise of, in United States........ 210
  Report to Congress on, 1816,.... 212
  statistics of, in U. States, 1840,.. 213
  benefits to commerce,.......... 215

Z.

Zollverein, German,.. 236

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